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Hugh S. Hanna, Editor

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This Issue in Brief

The settlement of the 98-day Pacific coast maritime strike in February resulted in a $10 per month increase in the wage of unlicensed seamen, and cash instead of time off for overtime work. Engineers received increases of from $15 to $20 per month and radio telegraphists a $10 increase. No change was made in the wages of longshoremen. The detailed settlements are given in an article on page 813.

Average hourly earnings in manufacturing increased from approximately 42 cents in the first half of 1933 to almost 60 cents in December 1936. Wage changes, however, were by no means uniform among different manufacturing industries or among different plants in the same industry. These differences in wage trends are brought out in an analysis of the wage history of six important industries. Page 828.

The number of persons in the engineering profession increased by 25.3 percent over the 5-year period ending December 1934. This was much in excess of available engineering employment opportunities. These opportunities differed markedly among the professional classes. Of all engineers who reported being professionally active prior to 1930, only 46.2 percent were in the employ of private firms in 1934; in 1929, 62.2 percent were so engaged. Federal Government employment provided for 10.1 percent in December 1934, while in 1929 this field gave employment to only 5.3 percent. The net new private firm employment that developed between 1930 and 1934 was secured by newcomers who entered the profession in this period. Page 859.

The hourly entrance wage rate of adult male common laborers in the United States averaged slightly more than 43 cents in July 1936, as compared with 43.0 cents in 1935, 33.3 cents in 1933, and 43.2 in 1929. Geographical differences were very great, the range by States in 1936 being from 52.6 cents in Washington to 25.5 cents in Arkansas and South Carolina. Page 938.

Wage-rate increases for union street-railway conductors and motormen and bus operators occurred between 1935 and 1936 in more than one-half of the cities covered by the union-wage survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They were confined in large part to the smaller cities and to the cities having the lower wage scales. The increases ranged from 1 to 7 cents per hour. Page 977.

About 1,000,000 workers in the United States are exposed to the hazard of silicosis and approximately 110,000 of these actually have silicosis in some degree. Reports made by four technical committees, appointed at the first National Silicosis Conference in April 1936, deal with the prevention of this disease through medical control and through engineering control; with the economic, legal, and insurance phases of the problem; and with the regulatory and administrative phases. Page 909.

About 4¾ million placements in private industry were made by the United States Employment Service from its establishment in 1933 to the end of February 1937. Including placements in public and relief work, total placements during this period amounted to some 18¾ million, and the total number of applicants registered was more than 25 million. A wide range of occupations existed among the placements, some 2,500 occupations being represented among the verified placements during a recent 12-month period. Page 1001.

The International Labor Conference in June next will consider the desirability of raising the age limits for employment; the reduction of hours of work in the textile, printing, and chemical trades; safety provisions for workers in building construction; and the planning of public works in relation to employment. Any agreements which the Conference may reach by a two-thirds majority will be referred for formal action to the member governments, including the United States, which has been a member of the International Labor Organization since 1934. Page 885.

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The Maritime Strikes of 1936–37

Pacific Coast Strike

A STRIKE which lasted 98 days and completely tied up the shipping industry on the Pacific coast was terminated on February 4, 1937. More than 37,000 workers were directly involved, and thousands more were thrown out of work when water-transportation facilities were disrupted. The lumber industry in the Northwest and the canning industry along the Pacific coast were most seriously affected.

In contrast to the maritime strike in 1934, there was practically no violence. Each side took its case before the public by way of the press and the radio, and leaders of the opposing parties engaged in public debates before audiences packed with sympathizers from each side. At some ports the strikers appointed guards from their own ranks to cooperate with the regular city police to maintain order. In San Francisco a commissary department, operated by the Cooks and Stewards' Union, served meals to strikers and put up thousands of lunches for pickets each day. A recreation center was established in a big water-front hall.

The strike resulted from a failure of shipowners and the seven maritime unions [1] to agree on modifications of existing agreements and arbitration awards which were to expire on September 30, 1936. During the maritime strike of 1934 President Roosevelt had appointed a National Longshoremen's Board to negotiate terms of settlement and employment relations. Some of its awards, as in the case of the International Longshoremen's Association, formed the basic agree-

[1] These unions were the International Longshoremen's Association; the Marine Engineers' Beneficial Association; the Masters, Mates, and Pilots' Association; the American Radio Telegraphists' Association; the Sailors' Union of the Pacific; the Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders, and Wipers' Association; and the Marine Cooks and Stewards' Association of the Pacific Coast.

In the spring of 1935, representatives of the west coast divisions of these unions had organized into the Maritime Federation of the Pacific. Early in the negotiations for renewal of the agreements in 1936, the federation agreed that no individual agreements with employers should be signed until all federation unions had reached satisfactory settlements.

ment between the shipowners and the unions. In other cases, for example the seamen, the Board determined which unions should represent the workers and these unions made their own contracts with the shipowners. These agreements and awards, which determined the questions of wages, hours of work, methods of hiring, and other matters, were automatically renewable from year to year unless one of the parties notified the other of a desire to terminate or modify them at least 40 days prior to September 30 of any year.

On July 29, 1936, the chairman of the employers' coast committee, which represented the water-front employers' associations of San Francisco, southern California, Portland, and Seattle, notified the International Longshoremen's Association of a desire to modify the existing award, and requested an early conference with union representatives. In August similar notices were served upon unions representing the unlicensed personnel.[2] The communication read, in part, as follows:

> We agree, and we request that you now agree, that any issues upon which we may not have agreed by September 1, 1936, shall be promptly submitted to arbitration so that a decision may be rendered on them before September 30, 1936.

The first meeting in the long series of negotiations between the shipowners and the unions was with a committee representing the Marine Firemen's Union on August 18. The firemen agreed to negotiate as far as possible but took the position that the question of arbitrating any issues on which direct negotiations failed would have to be taken to the membership of the union. About the same time the Sailors' Union of the Pacific agreed to submit to arbitration such matter as "in its judgment" ought to be arbitrated but "reserves the right to refuse to arbitrate * * * certain fundamental rights."

The employers asked for a definite commitment from the International Longshoremen's Association concerning their proposal to arbitrate all issues not settled by September 1. The union refused to agree unconditionally to arbitrate the issues before knowing what the issues were. In a meeting on August 24, therefore, it was agreed to

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[2] In preparing to start negotiations between employers and the seamen the question arose as to who should represent the sailors—the International Seamen's Union or the Sailors' Union of the Pacific. The old agreements were with the International Seamen's Union as agent for its three member unions (the Sailors' Union of the Pacific; the Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders, and Wipers' Association; and the Marine Cooks and Stewards' Association) although each of the three units had also signed the agreements. In January 1936, the International Seamen's Union revoked the charter of the Sailors' Union of the Pacific. After the revocation of the union's charter, substantially all of the union members signed pledge cards authorizing the officers to continue all activities of the union, including the collection of dues, negotiating contracts, and "all activities that the committee and the officers could do or transact as officers of the Sailors' Union, without limitation."

In May 1936, the Sailors' Union of the Pacific petitioned the National Labor Relations Board to conduct an investigation and make a certification as to who should represent the west coast sailors in the negotiations looking toward a renewal of the existing agreements. The hearings indicated that the companies had, for all practical purposes, recognized the Sailors' Union of the Pacific as the bargaining agency for the sailors, and that this union claimed to be the proper representative, and the International Seamen's Union was not contesting the right. The Board thereupon stated that there was no question at issue. No formal certification was made, but the Board provided for the immediate reopening of the case if a dispute concerning representation developed later.

put the demands and issues into writing so that they could be considered point by point.

The chief demands made by the International Longshoremen's Association were for a 5 cents per hour wage increase for straight time and 10 cents for overtime, uniform differentials on penalty cargoes for the entire coast, coastwise preferential employment to union members, and overtime pay for all work between 3 p. m. and 8 a. m. and for all time on Sundays and holidays. The chief demand of the shipowners was that the hiring halls and settlement of disputes arising over hiring and firing should be conducted by the joint labor relations committees established by the 1934 arbitration award. The award had provided for this arrangement, but the shipowners charged that "during the past 2 years your locals have assumed exclusive control of the halls and the method of dispatching longshoremen therefrom." The shipowners now asked for the substitution of "neutral persons responsible to the joint labor relations committees in place of the union officials and representatives who now administer the affairs of the halls and direct the dispatching of longshoremen." In addition to the question of the hiring halls, the shipowners asked that the union refrain from strikes and abide by the decisions of the arbiter who had been appointed to adjust disputes under the 1934 award, that efficiency be restored to the pre-1934 level, that a workday of two 6-hour shifts at straight time be established, and that "employees shall perform all work as ordered by the employers * * * and that no official or member of the International Longshoremen's Association or other longshoremen shall interfere with the performance of work as so ordered."

When no agreement could be reached on these proposals, the longshoremen's union announced its willingness to withdraw its demands and continue under the existing award, provided the operators would withdraw their proposals. This offer was rejected, the employers insisting that their proposals be incorporated in a new agreement. A referendum vote of the longshoremen resulted in a rejection of the operators' proposal that all differences be arbitrated.

As these discussions with the longshoremen were taking place, proposals and counterproposals were being made between shipowners and the other maritime unions. For example, the sailors' union demanded wages of $65 to $110 per month, depending on the kind of work, while the employers offered $40 to $85. The union wanted overtime rates of 85 cents to $1 per hour as compared with an offer of 60 cents. The union wanted to continue its control of the hiring halls. The operators proposed preferential employment of union sailors but wanted joint or neutral control of the hiring halls. Both parties were agreed on the 8-hour day. The union asked the right to refuse to go through picket lines and wanted July 5 made a water-front holiday.[3]

[3] July 5 is the anniversary of the date of so much violence in the 1934 strike, when a number of union members lost their lives.

On September 26, the unions requested a 15-day extension of the negotiating period. On September 29 the newly created United States Maritime Commission sent telegrams from Washington to the unions and operators, asking that existing contracts be extended for a period of 60 days in order that the new Commission could investigate the matters in dispute. On September 30 the operators agreed to the 15-day truce proposed by the unions and agreed to the 60-day extension of existing contracts proposed by the Maritime Commission, provided that the unions would agree to arbitrate the issues still unsettled at the end of the period. Both parties later agreed to a truce extending to October 26, the unions agreeing on condition that any wage adjustments agreed upon were to be retroactive to October 1.

The Maritime Commission proposed an extension of existing contracts for a year, during which time the Commission could make its investigation. The operators would not agree to the proposal unless they were given assurance that there would be no strikes and stoppages during the period. The unions undertook to accept the proposal only if operators would concede certain points, the principal ones of which were union control of hiring halls and a guaranty of cash payments to seamen for overtime instead of compensatory time off. In the meantime, the unions had conducted a strike vote among their members, which resulted in an authorization for a joint strike-policy committee to call a general strike if negotiations failed.

The strike was called on October 29, and immediately all shipping on the Pacific coast came to a standstill. For a time it looked as though the strike might spread to all of San Francisco's warehouses and threaten the food supply.[4] With the assistance of the Assistant Secretary of Labor, this general dispute was settled in a few days. A serious food shortage in Alaska was prevented when President Roosevelt issued an Executive order directing the Government-owned Alaska Railroad to charter ships and operate an adequate mail, passenger, and freight service to the northern Territory.

Negotiations for settlement of the strike continued week after week with the assistance of Federal and local conciliators. During January agreements were made with some of the unions, but these were held in abeyance until satisfactory settlements were reached with all seven unions. On the last day of January the joint strike-policy committee voted for a coastwise membership referendum on the question of ratifying the proposed agreements and officially terminating the strike. The membership vote, showing a 7-to-1 majority in favor of accepting the agreements and returning to work, was completed on February 4, and the strike was immediately declared to

[4] The International Longshoremen's Association has a number of locals among the warehousemen in San Francisco. Employers refer to this organization movement as the union's "march inland."

be ended. The marine firemen did not ratify their agreement but voted to return to work with the others and to arbitrate the objectionable points.

By the terms of settlement the unlicensed personnel receive $10 per month wage increases and cash instead of time off for overtime. The engineers on coastwise ships receive an increase of $20 per month, and those on offshore ships of $15. The licensed deck officers receive a $15 per month increase, and the radio telegraphists a $10 increase. There is no change in wages of longshoremen. The union maintains control of the hiring of longshoremen and unlicensed maritime workers, and preferential hiring is to be given to union licensed personnel.[5]

Atlantic and Gulf Coast Dispute

In New York the Seamen's Defense Council, a group from the ranks of the International Seamen's Union, announced a strike in sympathy with the west coast workers on November 6, 1936. The officers of the union did not consent to this strike call. The ship operators, as well as the officers of the International Seamen's Union, objected on the ground that east coast and Gulf seamen were operating under an agreement which did not expire until December 31, 1937. Those announcing the strike, however, refused to be bound by the agreement, charging that it had never been ratified by the members and was, therefore, illegal.

On November 23 the Masters, Mates, and Pilots' Association and the Marine Engineers' Beneficial Association issued "stop work" orders to all of their members along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. The demands of these two unions were for a 1-year contract providing for increased wages and better working conditions. Similar action was taken by the American Radio Telegraphists' Association on November 30, with demands for a 10-percent increase in wages and an 8-hour day. On January 14 the national officers of the Masters, Mates, and Pilots' Association and the Marine Engineers' Beneficial Association officially called off the strike insofar as these organizations were concerned.

About the middle of January the Seamen's Defense Council filed charges with the National Labor Relations Board, charging a conspiracy between the officers of the International Seamen's Union and the shipowners. The officers of the International Seamen's Union contended that the Labor Board had no jurisdiction in the case since this was not a dispute between workers and employers but was primarily an intra-union dispute. After preliminary hearings, the Board ruled that it had jurisdiction, since it was a question of which leaders represented the majority of the unlicensed personnel and which group should constitute the correct bargaining agency.

[5] See p. 818 for description of these agreements.

When the officers of the international unions and the American Federation of Labor promised to make a thorough investigation of the internal union situation and, if necessary, to hold elections to determine what persons should hold office, the National Labor Relations Board closed the hearings. Meanwhile on January 24, the Seamen's Defense Council announced that the strike on the Atlantic and Gulf ports was called off.

Pacific Coast Maritime Agreements

THE new agreements covering Pacific coast maritime workers became effective February 5, 1937, and expire September 30, 1937, with provisions for annual renewal thereafter. The agreements in the deep-sea and intercoastal trade were signed by 28 lines with each of the 6 unions representing different classes of seafaring workers. The parties to the coastwise or steam-schooner trade agreements were the Shipowners' Association of the Pacific coast, representing 37 lines, and the 6 unions of seafaring workers. Dock workers are covered by a joint agreement between the Pacific coast district of the International Longshoremen's Association and water-front employers' associations of Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, and southern California. These agreements cover all groups of workers engaged in Pacific coast seagoing merchant service except oil tankers.[6]

Important provisions of agreements covering the three unions of unlicensed personnel, the three unions of licensed personnel, and the longshoremen, are described below.

Unlicensed Personnel

THE unlicensed personnel, divided into three groups—deck, engine room, and steward's department—are represented by the Sailor's Union of the Pacific; the Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders, and Wipers' Association; and the Marine Cooks and Stewards' Association of the Pacific Coast.[7]

Discrimination for union activity is prohibited. Union members are to be given preference in employment and all help is to be secured through the union, the union undertaking to replace men rejected as unsatisfactory by the employers if adequate reasons in writing are furnished. On every vessel a deck delegate, corresponding to a shop chairman, is selected as a representative of each union.

Strikes, lock-outs, and other stoppages of work are prohibited during the life of the agreements. Port committees for deep-sea and coastwise trade are to be established at San Francisco, with three representatives from each union and group of operators. These committees

[6] For a description of the last strike of oil tankers and its results, see Monthly Labor Review, August 1935 (pp. 380-382).

[7] See footnote 1, p. 813.

must meet within 24 hours of call by either party. Subsidiary committees are established in Seattle, Portland, and San Pedro, but their decisions must be referred promptly to the San Francisco port committees for ratification, nullification, or change. The San Francisco committees also adjudicate disputes upon which the subsidiary committees are unable to agree.

If the San Francisco port committees for the deep-sea trade are unable to agree on any issue, a nonpartisan committee is to be established by each party selecting two members and these four selecting a referee by majority vote. To insure impartiality, both the union and the employers are given three vetoes which may be exercised within 24 hours after an appointment is announced. If agreement upon a referee is not reached, either the senior circuit judge or the senior district judge of the Federal bench in San Francisco may be added to break the deadlock. In the coastwise trade the San Francisco port committees are to select the referee. In case of failure to agree, the referee is to be appointed by the United States Secretary of Labor. The decision of the referee is final and binding.

On deep-sea passenger vessels it is stipulated that the number on the staff in the steward's department shall be determined on the basis of requirements under the maximum-hour provisions of the agreement. For freighters, a minimum staff of five is provided with as many as four workers to be added, in accordance with a specified scale, as the crew or number of passengers increase. Restoration of staffs reduced from three to two or four to three, since January 1, 1921, on coastwise vessels, is to be considered by the port committee.

Wages and hours for unlicensed deck personnel.—The following monthly base rates are provided by the agreements for unlicensed deck workers:

	Deep-sea vessels	*Alaskan vessels*
Boatswain	[1] $85.00	$95.00
Boatswain's mate	82.50	------
Carpenter	[1] 85.00	92.50
Carpenter's mate	80.00	------
Storekeeper	77.50	------
Quartermaster	77.50	92.50
Able seamen	72.50	82.50
Ordinary seamen	55.00	67.50
Watchman	72.50	82.50
Deck boy	50.00	------
Winchdrivers	------	92.50

[1] $95 on vessels of from 10,000 to 15,000 gross tons and $100 on vessels of from 15,001 to 20,000 gross tons.

Ten dollars more per month than the above scale must be paid to men required to furnish uniforms, and $7.50 more to carpenters furnishing tools. Monthly basic rates set for the coastwise trade are $80 for sailors and $90 for winchdrivers. Whenever deck workers

do longshore work in ports where there are no union longshoremen the regular longshore rates are to be paid. The rate of standby work done by the day while in port is to be $6.40 for an 8-hour day, with 4 hours' pay the minimum.

Maximum hours of work in port are 8 per day to be worked from 8 a. m. to 5 p. m. At sea the men work in three watches of 8 hours each. Saturday afternoons, Sundays, New Year's Day, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Armistice Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas are considered holidays. Watchmen receive 1 day off in 7.

Overtime work is defined in detail to exclude time spent in emergencies, drills, necessary navigation, etc. The overtime rate is 70 cents an hour on deep-sea vessels, 80 cents for the Alaskan trade and on coastwise vessels, 80 cents for ship work, and 90 cents for cargo work. At least 1 hour's overtime pay must be given unless the work is done just before or after the regular hours. Under the latter condition a minimum of a half hour's overtime is to be paid. As soon as possible after overtime is worked, the deck delegate must compare his records with those of the officer in charge. For the Alaskan and coastwise trades a penalty rate half again as much as the usual overtime rate is applied to any work done during the 8 hours following 16 consecutive hours on duty. Men working cargo on overtime with intervals of 2 hours or less must must be given continuous overtime pay.

Many extra rates are provided for hazardous or especially unpleasant work. On deep-sea vessels, for cleaning tanks holding fluid cargo (usually oil) 70 cents extra per hour is paid if the work is done during regular hours, $1 an hour otherwise. In the coastwise trade the overtime rate is applied to such work done on regular shift and 25 cents more than the overtime rate for such work performed outside of regular hours. The rates for work with explosives are $1.40, $1, and $0.25 extra per hour in the deep-sea, Alaskan, and coastwise trades, respectively. Cargo work in ports where there are no longshoremen is paid at $1 per hour on deep-sea vessels, and 25 cents over the regular rate on Alaskan and coastwise vessels. The coastwise agreements also set an extra hourly rate of $1.40 for work on damaged cargo, and $2.10 when fire is present or cargo is smouldering. In the coastwise trade subsistence and transportation back to the port of engagement must be provided when ships are abandoned and for men discharged after less than 15 days' employment when a ship is laid up for any reason. While in port, 60 cents is paid for each meal not furnished and $1 for each night when workers must find lodging on shore.

Wages and hours for unlicensed engine-room personnel.—Although split watches are permitted under certain conditions, hours are the same as for unlicensed deck workers. Monthly base wage rates are as follows:

	Deep-sea vessels	*Alaskan vessels*	*Coastwise vessels*
Oilers	$82.50	$87.50	$80
Watertenders	82.50	87.50	--
Firemen	72.50	82.50	80
Firemen-watertenders	82.50	-----	--
Storekeeper	82.50	-----	--
Wipers	60.00	67.50	60
Combination men	-----	87.50	[1] 80

[1] $85 if a combination man replaces a fireman and an oiler.

The overtime rate on deep-sea vessels is 70 cents an hour, while on Alaskan and coastwise ships 80 cents is the hourly overtime rate. When less than 2 hours' overtime is worked in getting up steam, at least 2 hours' overtime must be paid. There are provisions similar to those for unlicensed deck personnel with respect to transportation and subsistence when ships are abandoned or laid up and for meals and lodging when these are not furnished on the vessels.

Wages and hours for the steward service.—Wage rates in the Alaskan trade are specified for each vessel or group of vessels, varying from $67.50 to $157.50 per month. On deep-sea passenger vessels, as distinguished from freighters, the personnel of the steward service is, of course, much more elaborate than is found elsewhere. Rates vary from $55 for messboys to $200 and $285 for second and first chefs on class A passenger vessels, and from $55 for messboys to $135 for chief cook and chief baker on class B passenger vessels. Monthly rates for deep-sea freighters and coastwise vessels, on which occupations in this department are fairly comparable, are as follows:

	Deep-sea freighters	*Coastwise vessels*
Steward	$125	$105.00
Cook and steward	130	105.00
Chief cook	110	105.00
Second cook	[1] 90	75.00
Galleyman	---	62.50
Messman	60	62.50
Waiters	60	62.50
Cabinman	---	62.50
Pantryman	---	62.50
Messboys	55	------

[1] $95 if steward duties included.

In the deep-sea and Alaskan trade the rate is $6.40 per day for extra men, while $6 is the rate for the coastwise trade. Extra workers in the Alaskan trade receive $7.50 for work on Sundays and holidays.

Maximum daily hours on deep-sea passenger ships in the Alaskan trade are 9, to be worked within 13 consecutive bours. Wherever possible, however, 8 hours of work from 8 a. m. to 5 p. m. is to be scheduled. Hours on deep-sea freighters and on coastwise vessels are limited to 8, to be worked within 12 consecutive hours. Cooks on

deep-sea passenger ships are to accumulate 1 day's holiday each 2 weeks, which must be taken at the end of the voyage or paid for at the rate of 9 hours' overtime for each accrued holiday.

The overtime rates are 70 cents an hour except for unskilled workers on deep-sea vessels, who receive 60 cents an hour. Except for the provision setting compensation for meals and lodging which must be taken on shore and the provision for transportation and subsistence back to the home port, extra-pay provisions differ from those of the other unlicensed deck personnel agreements because of the different character of the work. Various amounts are provided for serving lunches at odd hours while in port to other than passengers and crew.

Licensed Officers

Licensed officers include those in the deck, engine room, and radio divisions of the service. The National Organization of Masters, Mates, and Pilots of America is the recognized bargaining agency for licensed deck officers and the Pacific coast district of the Marine Engineer's Beneficial Association for engine-room officers. Radio officers are represented by the American Radio Telegraphists' Association.

In filling vacancies of deck and engine-room officers on deep-sea vessels preference is to be given to those officers employed just preceding the strike, according to their seniority, merit, ability, and qualified experience. The employers are to have full freedom of selection, but discrimination for union affiliation is prohibited. In the Alaskan and coastwise trades preference is given to members of the union, but the employer may choose his own men without being obliged to follow a rotation system. Nonunion members who were employed on May 1, 1934 (the strike of that year began May 9), in the Alaskan trade must not be displaced by this provision. Hiring of radio officers must be through the union office, members who have been longest unemployed to be given preference.

In the coastwise trade, port committees like those for unlicensed personnel are established to settle disputes. For deep-sea vessels the adjudicating agency is a licensed personnel board consisting of two representatives of each party. These boards must meet within 24 hours of call. Decisions are by majority vote. If no decision can be reached, a fifth member must be selected within 48 hours by the board or from a list of five furnished by the United States Secretary of Labor. Each party may veto two of the five nominees, the remaining person then to sit with the board and render a decision within 10 days unless an extension of time is agreed upon. Local settlement committees may be established to hear and decide cases in various ports, but their decisions are not effective until approved by the licensed personnel board.

In the deep-sea trade, promotions of deck officers are to be granted in accordance with seniority, provided that the necessary qualifications are met. Seniority records must be available to the union, and seniority rights are not lost when officers are absent from duty because of disability, lay-up of ships, or leave of absence for union service. There is to be no discrimination against otherwise qualified officers who do not qualify for the Naval Reserve Corps.

The deck officers' union undertakes to take out insurance as a protection to deep-sea operators against claim for loss of life or injury. The coastwise agreement for these officers provides:

> Arbitrary age limitation is unjust and unfair, and we desire that steps be taken to provide rather than restrict employment for these who have the advantage of age and experience.

In the deep-sea trade at least four licensed engineers must be carried on each vessel; and if these four consistently work more than the basic 8-hour day, a fifth must be added. Coastwise vessels in class A and specified vessels in class B must also carry at least four engineers. It is also provided that on other vessels carrying four engineers at the time the agreement was signed, no reduction in staff may be put into effect during the life of the agreement. The coastwise agreement for radio officers provides that vessels radio equipped and manned on or after July 1, 1936, shall remain so equipped and manned during the life of the agreement.

Deck officers.—Minimum monthly wages rates, set according to a power tonnage classification of vessels, are given in table 1. Masters' rates are set by individual dealing with employers; officers not listed are to receive an increase of $15 a month over their present minima.

Base rates in the Alaskan trade are classified according to vessel. With two exceptions, masters' rates range from $270 to $335. On one the basic rate is $245, and on another the masters' rates are left to individual determination. Chief mates' rates vary from $180 to $220; second mates', from $160 to $175, although on one vessel second mates receive $125 and on another $195. The minimum rates for third mates vary from $145 to $160, with $180 provided for one vessel. Officers acting as mate and pilot receive from $210 to $220.

Maximum hours are 8 in a 24-hour period; while in port the 8 hours are to be worked between 8 a. m. and 5 p. m. Saturday afternoons, Sundays, and the holidays provided for unlicensed personnel are granted when the vessel is not at sea. The splitting of watches while at sea is permissible, but the conditions are specified in the agreements.

The overtime rate for licensed deck officers is $1 per hour, with a minimum payment of 1 hour's overtime. If overtime work is interrupted for 2 hours or less, continuous pay must be given.

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Mates acting as pilots on deep-sea vessels receive an extra payment of $3 an hour, and night relief officers hired by the day receive a daily rate of $8. In the Alaskan trade extra pay at straight time must be given to officers required to stay on board Saturday afternoons, Sundays, or holidays. Alaskan-trade deck officers also receive $2.50 extra for each call to move ship in the home port.

When board and room are not furnished, $3 must be paid each day for meals ($3.50 for coastwise masters) and $2 for lodging on shore. When a deck officer is being sent to another port or ship in the deep-sea trade, transportation and $3.75 a day for meals must be paid. On coastwise vessels the allowance for meals is $3. If ships are withdrawn from service (except through shipwreck), transportation and the meal allowance must be furnished either to the home port of the ship or the residence of the officer.

Table 1.—Wage Rates for Licensed Deck Officers

Rank	Deep-sea vessels							Coastwise vessels		
	Class A–1 (28,000 tons or over)	Class A (20,000 to 28,000 tons)	Class B–1 [1]	Class B (12,000 to 20,000 tons)	Class C (10,000 to 12,000 tons)	Class D (6,000 to 10,000 tons)	Class E (less than 6,000 tons)	Class A (5,001 to 7,000 tons)	Class B (2,501 to 5,000 tons)	Class C (2,500 tons and over)
Master	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	$320	$290	$265
Chief officer	[3] $235	$215								
First mate	210	200		$190	$190	$185	$180	[4] 180	[4] 170	[4] 165
Second mate	185	175	$170	165	165	160	155	165	155	150
Third mate	170	160	155	150	150	145	140	150	140	135
Fourth mate			140							
Juniors	115									

[1] 4 ships are specified as falling in this intermediate class.
[2] No masters' rates specified in the agreements. These are set by individual dealing.
[3] On 6 ships in this class the minimum rate is $265.
[4] Designated, on these vessels, as chief mate.

Licensed engine-room officers.—Monthly base rates are as follows:

Table 2.—Wage Rates for Licensed Engine-Room Officers

Rank	Deep-sea vessels [1]				
	Class A–3 (twin screw, 35,000 tons or over)	Class A–2 (twin screw, 28,001 to 35,000 tons)	Class A–1 (twin screw, 20,001 to 28,000 tons)	Class A (twin screw, 15,001 to 20,000 tons; single screw, 20,000 tons and over)	Class B (twin screw, 9,001 to 15,000 tons; single screw, 12,001 to 20,000 tons)
Chief engineer	$390	$345	$335	$315	$310
First assistant	265	235	225	215	195
Senior second assistant	210	205	200	190	170
Junior second assistant	210	205	200	190	
Third assistant	185	180	175	165	155
Fourth assistant	170	165			135
Fifth assistant	160	155			
Sixth assistant	150	145			
Licensed junior	140	135	130	125	115

[1] These rates are for steam vessels; 10 percent is added for motor or Diesel vessels.

Table 2.—Wage Rates for Licensed Engine-Room Officers—Continued

Rank	Deep-sea vessels [1]			Coastwise vessels [1]		
	Class C (twin screw, 5,501 to 9,000 tons; single screw, 7,501 to 12,000 tons)	Class D (twin screw, 3,501 to 5,500 tons; single screw, 5,001 to 7,500 tons)	Class E (twin screw, less than 3,501 tons; single screw, less than 5,000 tons)	Class A (5,001 to 7,000 tons)	Class B (2,501 to 5,000 tons)	Class C (2,500 tons and under)
Chief engineer	$300	$275	$265	$245	$235	$215
First assistant	190	185	180	180	170	165
Senior second assistant	165	160	155	[2] 165	[2] 155	[2] 150
Junior second assistant						
Third assistant	150	145	140	150	140	135
Fourth assistant						
Fifth assistant						
Sixth assistant						
Licensed junior						

[1] These rates are for steam vessels; 10 percent is added for motor or Diesel vessels.
[2] Designated, on these vessels, as "second assistant."

Base rates for the Alaskan trade are classified according to company and vessel. Chief engineers' rates vary from $245 to $315, first assistants' from $180 to $210, and second assistants' from $160 to $175, although on one vessel the rate is $195. Third assistants' base rates vary from $145 to $160, while the rate for fourth assistants is $140.

The coastwise agreement provides for transportation and meals to the port of hire and specifies a $4 daily payment for meals when officers are transferred to another port or vessel.

Licensed radio officers.—Basic monthly rates for radio officers on vessels where a continuous watch is not maintained are $125 for the deep-sea trade, $130 for the Alaskan trade, and $110 for the coastwise trade. For deep-sea vessels where a continuous watch is maintained, the following rates are provided:

Table 3.—Monthly Rates for Radio Officers on Deep-Sea Vessels

Rank	Class A vessels	Class B vessels	Class C vessels	Alaskan, 9 specified or equivalent vessels	Other Alaskan vessels
Chief radio officer	$175	$160	$140	$140	$137.50
First assistant radio officer	150	145	130	130	122.50
Second assistant radio officer	135	130	120	120	112.50
Third assistant radio officer	125				

Maximum hours are 8 in 24. Overtime work is prohibited while deep-sea vessels are in port. Holidays are as in the preceding agreements. The rate for overtime work is $1 an hour. At least an hour's overtime pay must be given, except on coastwise vessels when overtime is worked just before or after regular hours. Under these circumstances a half hour's pay may be given.

When subsistence is not provided, $5 a day must be paid for board and lodging. When required to transfer to another port or vessel, a radio officer must be furnished transportation and $3.75 a day for meals. Transportation back to port of hire or the officer's residence must be provided if a vessel is withdrawn from the service for any reason other than shipwreck.

Longshoremen

A LABOR relations committee is to be established in each port, composed of three representatives chosen by the Pacific coast district (Local 38) of the International Longshoremen's Association and three by the water-front employers' association of each port. Either party may refer disputes to the committee if direct negotiation has failed to produce a settlement within 24 hours of call by either party. If the committee is unable to agree, they may refer the matter to a mutually acceptable person or persons, or, on request of either party, to an arbitrator designated by the Secretary of Labor. Strikes, lockouts, and other stoppages of work are prohibited during the life of the agreement.

Each port is to have one central hiring hall, with branch halls established as the labor relations committee deems feasible. The personnel of the halls is determined by the labor relations committee, with the exception of the dispatcher, who is selected by the union. Nonmembers may register in the hiring halls, but must pay to the labor relations committee a pro-rata share of the hall's expenses. Gangs best qualified to do their work are to be dispatched to the employers. Longshoremen not working in gangs are to be so dispatched as to equalize their earnings, insofar as possible, with members of gangs. The labor relations committee is empowered to decide questions of rotation of gangs and extra men, revision of registration, the addition of new men to the industry, and other matters of mutual concern which are not covered by the agreement.

Workers may be discharged for incompetence, insubordination, or failure to perform their work as required. The union undertakes the responsibility of eliminating deliberate bad conduct and illegal stoppages of work by fining, suspending, or expelling members guilty of such actions. Employers may file complaints against members with the union and will be notified of the union's decision.

Labor-saving devices and methods may be introduced at the discretion of the employers, without objection from the union. Two joint committees are to be established, one to develop a safety code which will be incorporated in the agreement and the other to determine upon the maximum loads permissible for standard commodities.

Wages and hours.—The minimum rate for longshore work is set at 95 cents an hour. Existing differentials are to be maintained and

a joint committee is to be established for the purpose of working out uniform penalty rates on certain kinds of cargo. Six hours is the maximum workday, to be worked between 8 a. m. and 5 p. m. A 30-hour workweek, averaged over a 4-week period, is established. Any work done after 5 p. m. on weekdays, from 5 p. m. Friday to 8 a. m. Monday, and on legal holidays, must be considered overtime work.

The overtime rate is $1.40 an hour and applies to work done during mealtimes and after the first 6 hours worked between 8 a. m. and 5 p. m. on weekdays. Time and a half of either the straight or overtime rate must be paid for work performed after 5 hours without stopping for a meal.

Average Hourly Earnings in Manufacturing, 1933 to 1936

By A. F. Hinrichs, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics

General Wage Situation, 1933–36

THE movement of average hourly earnings in manufacturing industries since 1933 divides the 4 years into distinct periods. In the first half of 1933 wages reached a low ebb for the depression. The recovery of employment from March to June had little effect on average hourly earnings. With the adoption of the President's Reemployment Agreement and of the N. R. A., earnings rose sharply from an average of approximately 42 cents in the first half of 1933 to 52 or 53 cents by December.

After this initial upward readjustment of almost one-fourth, there followed during the next year and a half a further but more gradual rise to a level of about 57 cents in the late spring of 1935. The increase during this period reflected in part the adoption of higher standards in codes accepted during this period, and in part a more complete enforcement of code standards than prevailed in 1933. It also reflected increases obtained directly by labor beyond the minima set in the codes. Finally, part of the increase in the general average of hourly earnings in all manufacture from the winter of 1933–34 to the spring of 1935 was due to the recovery of employment in the higher-wage durable-goods industries, which gave these industries a larger weight in the average in 1935 than they had in 1933.

From the spring of 1935 to the spring of 1936 there was virtually no change in average hourly earnings for manufacturing as a whole. Through October 1936 the changes were primarily seasonal in character. Essentially, average hourly earnings in all manufacturing stood still during this year and a half.

The fact that the general average remained virtually unchanged from 1935 to 1936 does not mean that there was an underlying stability of wages. Actually, the wage structure of industry was in a state of flux. This is indicated by the fact that in 30 of the 89 manufacturing industries covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics average hourly earnings changed by more than 2 percent from June 1935 to June 1936; 15 industries showed increases and 15 showed decreases of that amount or more.

Table 1.—Manufacturing Industries Increasing or Decreasing Average Hourly Earnings by More Than 2 Percent Between June 1935 and June 1936

Industry	Increase	Industry	Decrease
	Percent		*Percent*
Cash registers	2.2	Corsets	2.4
Explosives	2.4	Aircraft	2.5
Printing, newspapers	2.4	Boots and shoes	2.8
Clocks	2.6	Confectionery	2.8
Chemicals	2.7	Flour, milling	2.9
Chewing and smoking tobacco	2.7	Cotton goods	3.0
Smelting and refining	2.7	Knit goods	3.4
Paint and varnish	3.2	Radios	4.7
Turpentine	3.2	Sugar refining	4.8
Engines, turbines, etc	3.6	Men's clothing	5.9
Auto tires	3.9	Silk and rayon	6.2
Aluminum manufactures	4.1	Cotton seed, oil, etc	7.7
Glass	4.6	Shirts and collars	11.9
Millinery	5.6	Women's clothing	13.6
Sawmills	8.9	Men's furnishings	18.3

Forces Determining Wage Structure

WHEN the legal basis for the national enforcement of minimum-wage standards was swept away by the decision in the *Schechter case*, a comprehensive work-relief program became the chief protection of unskilled wages against the pressure on the unemployed to enter sweated industry. Some further protection was afforded by a widespread desire of businessmen to maintain wages except as competitive conditions forced decreases. But complaints of wage cutting poured into Washington from wage earners and employers to the President and to the Secretary of Labor—pathetic pleas for help.

Skilled workers, however, were in a much stronger bargaining position in 1936 than in 1933. In the spring of 1934 directors for C. W. A. and F. E. R. A. work projects could find any type of capacity that was needed in the apparently limitless supply of skilled workers and technicians.

By October 1936 this was much less true. Many capable workers were still unemployed, but the growth of nonagricultural employment from 25,900,000 in March 1933 to 34,400,000 in October 1936 had at last created a relatively strong labor market for other than unskilled workers. From 1929 to 1935 there was little recruiting to the supply of skilled workers. While total nonagricultural employment in October 1936 was still only 95 percent of the average for 1929, it must be recalled that death, old age, and the corrosion of prolonged unemployment had eaten into the supply that existed in 1929. It is probable that the number of skilled workers in many occupations was less than it had been in 1929. The next census of population will show that, while the total working force of the country grows at the rate of at least 500,000 each year, the number of the unskilled is disproportionately great.

In view of the growth of employment and the lack of adequate training among the newcomers to industry, the employer faces rising

labor costs in many industries whichever way he turns. He may recruit and train new workers, but this costs money. He may lower his standards of employability and hire slower workers whom he spurned during the dark days of depression. He may bid up wages in order to draw in workers from lower-wage industries or establishments. He has used all methods, and will continue to use them, in judicious combination. But this background has made it possible for strong unions in some industries to advance wages beyond the levels established under the codes. In other industries employers have deemed it desirable to ward off threats of organization through wage increases, rather than by resorting to other equally costly methods of securing workers.

Throughout most of 1936 these conflicting forces resulted in a virtually unchanged over-all average of hourly earnings in manufacturing industries. But a steady increase of nonagricultural employment from 31,500,000 in May 1935 to 34,400,000 in October 1936 exerted great pressure on wage practices. In November and December 1936 there was a sudden release of this force for upward revision. The index of hourly earnings (based on January 1932=100) which had been 114.0 in May 1935, rose to 115.1 in November 1936 and to 118.0 in December. At the December 1936 level average hourly earnings in manufacturing approximated 59½ cents.

Widening Wage Differentials in 1935–36

These movements resulted in widening the wage differentials between occupations, between establishments, and between industries. This occurred in the first year after the lapse of the N. R. A. The wage increases in the closing months of 1936 further accentuated this tendency toward diversity of movement. The over-all index of average hourly earnings stood at 112.1 in December 1934 as against 118.0 in December 1936.[1] This average increase of 5.3 percent occurred partly in the winter and spring of 1935 and partly in the closing months of 1936. But the index of average hourly earnings declined between December 1934 and December 1936 in 23 of the 89 industries covered by the Bureau. It fell in all reported branches of wearing apparel, and in the case of men's furnishings by 17.7 percent. Among the textile fabrics there was a decline of 6.1 percent in silk and rayon goods and of 2.6 percent in knit goods. The other industries with declines of more than 1 percent in average hourly earnings were silverware, boots and shoes, paper boxes, sugar beets, confectionery, marble and other stone products, and aircraft.[2] It will be recognized that

[1] The span from December to December is taken to overcome, as far as possible, changes in earnings due to seasonal forces.

[2] The movement in aircraft establishments may be the result of the large increase of employment. The index of employment, based on the average of 1923–25=100, stood at 264.8 in December 1934 and 693.2 in December 1936. An increase in employment often involves the hiring of a relatively large number of less skilled workers.

this list of industries includes a large proportion which are highly competitive and many in which the problems of sweated labor have long been prominent. Only 5 of the 23 industries had average hourly earnings in December 1934 as large as the average for all manufacturing. In several of these, competition between organized and unorganized parts of the industry is an outstanding problem.

There was a tendency for wages to fall from December 1934 to December 1936 in the low-wage industries and to rise in those paying higher wages. Average hourly earnings for all manufacturing in December 1934 were 56 cents. There were 18 industries that averaged less than 47 cents. Only one-sixth of these increased average earnings from 1934 to 1936 as much as the average increase of 5.3 percent which prevailed for all manufacturing, while eight, or nearly half of the industries, actually showed decreased earnings. On the other hand, among the 12 industries that averaged 65 cents or more in December 1934, one-half increased average hourly earnings more than the average amount for all manufacturing, whereas only one-quarter decreased earnings.

While skilled workers fared better than unskilled, other factors also played a role in creating diversity of movement between industries. The list of industries that raised hourly earnings from December 1934 to December 1936 by 8 percent or more [3] contains perhaps only one that is subject to the sort of competition that characterizes the clothing industry. Many of them are highly integrated industries which have felt less need for legislative protection against unfair trade practices than those listed above as having decreased wages. Furthermore, many of the industries listed as making increases will be recognized as those which have faced a drive by organized labor and have found in wage increases a means to counter this drive. Finally, it must be noted that the codes raised minimum wage rates more than skilled rates, so that the wage changes described resulted in partially restoring the relative differences in pay, for the varying degrees of skill, that prevailed before the codes.

The lapse of minimum-wage standards as such can be shown definitely only through wage and hour studies of individual employees. Two such studies by the Bureau of Labor Statistics are available for a post-code period. In the folding-paper-box industry between August 1934 and August 1935 there was a tendency for wages to fall among the lowest paid and to rise somewhat among the higher paid workers. The general average for the industry, which was stabilized in this period by these offsetting movements, hid the break-down of

[3] Railroad cars, steam-railroad repair shops, lighting equipment, canning and preserving, petroleum refining, steel forgings, glass, cane sugar refining (from 8.0 to 8.6 percent); cash registers, chemicals, blast furnaces and steel works (9.0 to 9.2 percent); rubber tires (10.5 percent); soap (11.2 percent); automobiles, explosives, smelting and refining (12.1 to 12.6 percent); engines and turbines (13.1 percent); and rayon yarn (13.7 percent).

minimum standards. In the set-up paper-box industry, 11.9 percent of the workers in August 1935, as against 4.9 percent in August 1934, were paid less than the standard minimum rate of the code.

The report of January 4, 1936, of the Committee to Report on Changes in Labor and Trade Practice Standards contains the most comprehensive material available on minimum standards as such. This report, covering the fall of 1935, showed that in establishments that failed to maintain code standards a large proportion of the workers received less than the code wage. Thus, in such establishments as did not observe the code minimum, there were—

Nine industries in which 40 percent or more of the workers received less than the minimum.

Nine industries in which 25 to 40 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Eleven industries in which 10 to 25 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Nine industries in which less than 10 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

In other words the break-down of standards, when it occurred, tended to be general and was not confined to a few substandard workers whose earnings were allowed to drop below the minimum.

The report also made clear that in the fall of 1935 this break-down of minimum-wage standards was not universal and that many establishments in most industries held firmly to the former standard. Thus it was found that there were—

Twelve industries in which less than 1.5 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Eight industries in which 1.5 to 3.5 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Seven industries in which about 5 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Five industries in which 7 to 10 percent of the workers received less than the minimum.

Six industries in which 15 percent or more of the workers received less than the minimum.

It will be noted from these figures that there were only 6 of the 38 industries in which more than 10 percent of the total number of workers in all plants received less than the minimum. In other words the abandonment of code standards by establishments was not as general as the break-down of the standard within particular establishments shown above.

Wage Situation as Disclosed by Analysis of Six Industries

In view of the marked differences in wage movements between industries and the indications of substantial differences as between plants in single industries, a special analysis has been made of the reports on employment and pay rolls by individual establishments to

the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Because of the limitation of funds it was necessary to confine the study to six industries.

These industries were selected in order to make possible six intensive but separate studies. It was not believed that generalizations with reference to the behavior of all manufacturing industries could be drawn from these six cases alone. The industries were purposely selected to illustrate conditions accompanying unlike movements of average hourly earnings from the spring of 1935 to the spring of 1936.[4] The cotton garment and silk industries showed rather large decreases in average hourly earnings. Brick and tile plants and cotton-textile mills had had smaller decreases. Sawmills and hardware-manufacturing establishments were drawn from among the list of industries in which average hourly earnings increased.

Certain consistent patterns did emerge from these separate studies. These similarities are so marked that it seems highly probable that some of the conditions found in these six industries hold in many others as well.

Every one of these six industries shows a wide diversity in the movement of average hourly earnings as between the separate establishments. The second point of note is that out of this diversity of movement there emerges in each industry a general pattern which gives significance to the average movement of hourly earnings for the industry as a whole. It is possible that the original impulse to widespread wage changes may have come from some few establishments. At one time they may have made sufficiently large changes in hourly earnings to move the average for the industry as a whole, even though most establishments maintained unchanged average hourly earnings. There is some evidence that this was the situation in the fall of 1935 when the Committee to Report on Changes in Labor and Trade Practice Standards gathered its information. But by the spring of 1936, while there were extreme cases of both increases and decreases in average hourly earnings in each of the six industries, these unusual movements did not determine the change in the average for the industry as a whole. That was determined primarily by a dense concentration of plants making wage changes that approximated the average change for the industry as a whole.

A lengthening of hours without a corresponding increase in weekly earnings was a common method of effecting decreases in average hourly earnings.[5] This relationship of changes in the length of the

[4] The dates selected were governed by two considerations. The spring of 1935 was selected as the latest period for which the N.R.A. codes were effective. The corresponding month in 1936 was then selected as the most recent one with which comparisons could be made without introducing seasonal influences.

[5] There are no data available to show how general the use of other devices for reducing wages has been. Many instances have been reported of the abandonment of minimum guaranteed rates. Under the codes the Bureau frequently encountered cases of "make-up" to individuals whose work at prevailing piece rates in the establishments had not yielded the minimum hourly rates specified in the code. Abandonment of the "make-up" would lower such a worker's hourly earnings without any decrease in piece rates. Many instances of a straight decrease of both hourly and weekly earnings have also been reported.

working week to changes in average hourly earnings has been shown clearly in an earlier article appearing in the Monthly Labor Review.[6] It was found that wages had been adversely affected by operation in excess of code hours in 14 of 16 industries studied. In some industries this meant that establishments, whose average weekly hours for all employees in the spring of 1936 were above the maximum hours provided in the codes, had made larger decreases in hourly earnings than establishments still operating with average hours for all employees less than the maximum hours provided in the codes. In other industries it meant that establishments with the longer hours had made smaller increases in average hourly earnings.

The most important relationship that held in each of the six industries studied is the competitive advantage that accrued to those who cut wages more than the average or advanced them less than the average. In each of these industries the employer who cut wages gained, as he had hoped, relative to the man who did not.

Finally, there is a fairly constant general relationship between the changes in the average weekly earnings of the wage earners employed in 1935 and 1936 and the changes which occurred in their average hourly earnings. Average weekly earnings tended to increase most in establishments whose record as regards hourly earnings was better than the average for the industry. Average weekly earnings tended to be maintained even in establishments that cut hourly earnings, because of the fact that hours of work were lengthened proportionately more than wages were cut. Even substantial decreases in hourly earnings were sometimes accompanied by advances in weekly earnings. But in almost all industries a point was reached at which wage cuts were not offset by increases in hours of work.

In this analysis it is important to note not only the generalizations which hold in each of the several industries studied in detail. It is equally important to note negative conclusions; that is, relationships which do not hold in all cases.

It is sometimes said that decreases in average hourly earnings for an entire industry are a means to increasing the volume of business and hence of employment. There is no evidence whatsoever in the industries studied that such a relationship exists. The increase in the volume of business appears to be the result of a complex of forces and cannot be directly and simply related to changes in average hourly earnings.

In the second place, the detailed study of these six industries does not warrant the generalization which is often made that wage changes have been closely related to the size of the manufacturing establishment. In each of the industries a number of both small and large

[6] For more detailed discussion, see Monthly Labor Review, January 1937 (pp. 30-32): Hours and Earnings Before and After the N.R.A.

establishments increased wages. Others, again without regard to size, decreased wages by more than average amounts.[7]

In the third place, action to increase or decrease wages by more than average amounts between 1935 and 1936 does not appear to have depended upon whether or not the establishment was paying more or less than the average in the industry in 1935.

For a more detailed analysis of these relationships, the reader is referred to the studies which follow, of the several separate industries. It is to be expected that such findings will be more precise and more carefully qualified than generalizations based on comparative consistency of behavior among a small selection of industries.

Cotton-Garment Industry

IN THE cotton-garment industry 177 establishments reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in May both in 1935 and 1936. The total number of man-hours worked increased from 938,020 in May 1935 to 1,068,349 in May 1936, a gain of 13.9 percent. The number of persons employed increased 2.6 percent, indicating a substantial lengthening of hours. Hourly earnings were sufficiently reduced so that the aggregate pay roll of all employees in the 177 establishments declined 1.2 percent or by $5,016 per week.

These wage changes were accompanied by drastic shifts of business within the industry. Twenty-three establishments either maintained wages or did not decrease them more than 2½ percent. But they dropped 9.5 percent of their employees and worked, in the aggregate, 5.1 percent fewer man-hours in May 1936 than in May 1935. Those workers who remained in employment received an increase in average weekly earnings from $13.88 to $15.02. In establishments that reduced hourly earnings by 2½ to 7½ percent, which was less than the average decrease for the industry, the number employed declined 3½ percent while average weekly earnings rose from $14.20 to $14.42. In contrast, the small group of establishments cutting hourly earnings more than 37½ percent increased the number employed by 34.2 percent. Their average weekly earnings decreased from $10.88 to $8.23. The volume of business, as measured by total man-hours worked, increased by 62.2 percent (table 2).

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[7] The following generalizations seem to be supported by the detailed discussions that follow. The reader should appraise their limitations against a comparison with the detailed treatment for the separate industries.

(1) First of all there is much more dispersion of the wage changes in small than in large establishments. In nonstatistical terms this means that changes in small plants tended to be more extreme than in large ones. In an industry showing almost no change in average hourly earnings, small plants would make both large increases and large decreases with greater frequency than large plants.

(2) The largest plants adhered closely to the average for the industry. Insofar as they departed from the average they tended to a slightly better performance than the average for the industry. This statement holds even if one compares changes in such plants not with the weighted arithmetic average, which they may dominate because of their size, but with the median change in which the change for each establishment is the unit measured, irrespective of size.

(3) The worst average record for wage changes seems to be that of plants of intermediate size rather than the smallest establishments.

Table 2.—Changes in Employment, Man-Hours, and Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings in Cotton-Garment Establishments, May 1935 to May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, 1935 to 1936	Number of establishments	Percent of change in—		Average weekly earnings	
		Employment	Man-hours	1935	1936
Decrease of—					
Less than 2.5 percent	23	−9.5	−5.1	$13.88	$15.02
2.5 to 7.4 percent	29	−3.5	+2.6	14.20	14.42
7.5 to 22.4 percent	88	+5.2	+16.9	13.93	13.23
22.5 to 37.5 percent	26	+9.5	+36.8	12.97	11.62
More than 37.5 percent	11	+34.2	+62.2	10.88	8.23
Total	177	+2.6	+13.9	13.86	13.38

What were the characteristics of the manufacturers who cut wages? In May 1935 there were 54 establishments in the sample paying an average of less than 40 cents an hour, 69 paying 40 to 45 cents, and 54 paying 45 cents or more. While large wage cuts occurred in all types of establishments, those paying above the average in May 1935 made large cuts less frequently in the next year than plants that were below the average in 1935. Thus almost one-fifth of such establishments as averaged less than 40 cents in 1935 cut hourly earnings by more than 32.5 percent. One-tenth of those paying 40 to 45 cents made cuts of this size, but none of those paying more than 45 cents did so. Increases in hourly earnings of more than 2.5 percent between May 1935 and 1936 occurred primarily in plants paying about average wages in May 1935 (table 3).

Table 3.—Cotton-Garment Establishments Classified by Hourly Earnings in May 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Percent with average hourly earnings in May 1935 of—		
	Under 40 cents	40.0 to 44.9 cents	45.0 cents or over
More than +2.5 percent	1.8	10.1	3.7
+2.5 to −7.4 percent	20.4	20.4	31.4
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	31.5	43.5	38.9
−17.5 to −32.4 percent	27.8	15.9	26.0
−32.5 percent or more	18.5	10.1	----
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of establishments	54	69	54

When establishments are classified by size in May 1935 and wage changes to 1936, a very great diversity of movement is found. The most defensible generalization is that plants with more than 100 employees tended toward an average performance, that the largest establishments had a better record than those of intermediate size,

that extreme declines tend to be found most frequently among establishments with less than 100 employees, and that the smallest shops (with less than 50 employees) did not conform to any average, a relatively large number going to both extremes. The data in table 4 support the following:

(1) Increases of more than 2.5 percent were found relatively twice as frequently in establishments with less than 50 employees than in those with 50 to 300 employees. No cases of such increases were reported for the 32 largest establishments with more than 300 employees.

(2) Small establishments, however, were not a homogeneous class. They appeared to include both the best and the worst that the industry offered. Thus they showed not only a large proportion of increases but also a large proportion of extreme decreases. Decreases of more than 22.5 percent occurred in almost one-third of the establishments with less than 100 employees, in one-fifth of the establishments with 100 to 300 employees, and only in one of the 26 establishments with 300 to 500 employees.

(3) Better-than-average performance (a decrease of less than 7.5 percent) was found relatively less and less frequently as the size of establishments increased up to 200 employees. The record of establishments with 200 to 500 employees was better in this respect than that of plants with 50 to 200, but was not so good as that of the smallest. The six establishments with over 500 workers all made decreases of at least 2.5 percent but had a larger proportion of relatively small changes than any other class.

Table 4.—Cotton-Garment Establishments Classified by Number of Employees in May 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Establishments with classified number of employees in May 1935						
	Total	Under 50	50–99	100–199	200–299	300–499	500 and over
More than +2.5 percent	10	5	2	1	2	----	----
+2.5 to −7.4 percent	42	14	9	4	4	8	3
−7.5 to −22.4 percent	88	20	20	18	10	17	3
−22.5 to −37.4 percent	26	8	9	5	3	1	----
−37.5 percent or more	11	4	4	2	1	----	----
Total	177	51	44	30	20	26	6

The maintenance of average hourly earnings or small decreases from May 1935 to May 1936 in the manufacture of cotton garments occurred relatively more frequently in northern than in southern establishments. Thus more than one-third of the northern plants, but only one-seventh of the southern establishments, decreased hourly earnings by as little as 7.5 percent. Only one increase of 2.5 percent or more was granted among 50 southern plants, whereas

there were nine such cases among 127 northern establishments.[8] In both regions about half the establishments cut hourly earnings by 7.5 to 22.4 percent. In the South, however, cuts of 22.5 to 37.4 percent occurred relatively twice as frequently as in northern plants. Only two northern establishments cut by more than 37.5 percent; neither of these was in a State with many cotton-garment establishments. In the South 9 of the 50 establishments made cuts of this amount (table 5).

Table 5.—Establishments in Cotton-Garment Industry Reporting Changes in Hourly Earnings, May 1935 to May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Northern States		Southern States [1]		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Less than −7.4 percent	45	35.4	7	14.0	52
−7.5 to −22.4 percent	65	51.2	23	46.0	88
−22.5 to −37.4 percent	15	11.8	11	22.0	26
−37.5 percent or more	2	1.6	9	18.0	11
Total	127	100.0	50	100.0	177

[1] Including Maryland and Missouri.

Silk and Rayon Textile Industry

THE Bureau received employment and pay-roll reports from 144 identical silk establishments in April 1935 and April 1936. Aggregate man-hours of employment increased from 1,147,798 in 1935 to 1,196,329, a gain of 4.2 percent as compared with a 12-percent increase in all manufacturing. However, the number of workers employed actually decreased from 33,947 to 33,517, or 1.3 percent. The weekly earnings of the wage earners in these plants decreased from $522,887 to $515,518, or 1.4 percent.

Workers in the silk industry suffered certain immediate and obvious losses in the period under consideration. To begin with, 1.3 percent of the number who had jobs in April 1935 did not have jobs in April 1936. In the second place, those who had jobs earned weekly a few cents less than in 1935, but they worked 1.9 hours more. Their average hourly earnings declined from 45.6 cents to 43.1 cents, or 5.4 percent.

This fails to tell the full story. There were 17 manufacturers out of 144 who increased wages more than 2½ percent, and 30 more who held hourly earnings approximately constant. In these 47 establishments that maintained wages, average weekly earnings rose from $15.32 to $16.39, but the number employed decreased from 12,796 to

[8] It may be significant of regional differences in temperament to note the contrast between northern and southern mills as regards movements of average earnings above the level of a 7.5-percent decrease. It is to be noted that 4 southern mills held earnings approximately constant, whereas only 2 cut by 2.5 to 7.5 percent, while in the North the ratio is 5 to 13. Among mills that made little or no changes in hourly earnings, the tendency in the South was to make no change whereas northern mills tended to make cuts approximating 5 percent.

11,756, or 8.2 percent. There were 39 establishments in which hourly earnings moved with the average of the industry, being cut from 2½ to 7½ percent. In these establishments average weekly earnings remained more or less constant, declining from $15.20 to $15.05. Employment rose from 10,847 to 11,235, or 4.7 percent. Finally, there were 48 smaller establishments that cut wages more than 7½ percent; some, indeed, more than 37½ percent. In these, employment rose from 10,304 to 10,526, but average weekly earnings declined from $15.70 to $14.50.

In silk the employer who cut wages gained business from the man who did not. Those who worked for the wage cutter received less per week as well as per hour. The total volume of employment changed only slightly, but was redistributed. The redistribution of the volume of business is best measured in man-hours per week. Those manufacturers who maintained wages worked 433,644 hours in April 1935 and 410,559 in April 1936, a loss of 5.3 percent in volume. Those who gave an average cut increased their total hours of employment of 8.5 percent—from 368,772 hours in 1935 to 400,320 hours in 1936. Those with still larger cuts worked 345,380 hours in 1935 and 385,450 hours in 1936, a gain of 10.6 percent. In other words, those who maintained wages lost 23,085 hours per week, 2.0 percent of the total number of hours worked in 1935 by all 144 establishments. Those who reduced wages more than 2½ percent picked up this business from their competitors and in addition secured the 48,533 man-hours of new business that developed under the improved business conditions of 1936.

Notation was made, in the case of the cotton-garment industry, of the tendency of small establishments to depart from the general average movement of hourly earnings for the industry as a whole. This tendency was even more marked in the case of the silk industry. In the case of 51 small silk mills, each employing less than 100 workers in April 1935, the average decrease for the industry of 5.4 percent in hourly earnings was merely a point on either side of which large numbers of establishments were balanced.[9]

In contrast with establishments having less than 100 employees, the intermediate group had relatively fewer increases in average

[9] This group of small mills may be divided into 16 with fewer than 50 wage earners, and 35 with 50 to 99 wage earners. The atypical character of the average change in hourly earnings for the industry, when applied to small establishments, was more marked in the smallest establishments than among those with 50 to 99 wage earners. Only one of the smallest mills fell within the class which decreased about 5 percent.

In this subdivision of small silk and rayon establishments, also, the situation contrasted with that in the cotton-garment industry. In cotton garments the very smallest establishments showed relatively the largest number of increases. In silk manufacture only 1 of the 16 smallest plants had an increase of more than 2½ percent in average hourly earnings; 6 of the 35 establishments with 50 to 99 wage earners registered such a change. In the cotton-garment industry, extreme decreases in average hourly earnings were somewhat more frequent in establishments with 50 to 99 wage earners, than in the smallest establishments. In silk and rayon manufacture no difference could be observed.

hourly earnings, but also there were somewhat fewer establishments showing extremely large declines.

Establishments with 300 or more employees showed the same tendency to conform to the industry average change in hourly earnings as was shown by plants of intermediate size. However, that fifth of the largest establishments that made exceptional changes tended to give increases in average hourly earnings.

Table 6.—Silk and Rayon Textile Establishments Classified by Number of Employees in April 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by April 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, April 1935 to April 1936	Establishments with classified average number of employees in April 1935			
	Total	Under 100	100 and under 299	300 and over
More than +2.5 percent	17	7	4	6
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	30	10	12	8
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	39	5	21	13
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	42	22	13	7
−17.5 percent or more	16	7	8	1
Total	144	51	58	35

When establishments were classified on the basis of average hourly earnings in 1935, there was a clear pattern in the case of cotton garments. For silk and rayon it may be that there was no relationship between wages paid in 1935 and subsequent wage changes. Certainly no consistency can be shown without a large amount of more or less arbitrary grouping. Because of this irregularity, the mills are first grouped in table 7 in two broad classes including in one all paying more than the average and in the other all those paying less. These two classes are then also shown by finer wage intervals. From this table the following conclusions may be drawn:

(1) Increases in hourly earnings of more than 2.5 percent between April 1935 and April 1936 occurred more frequently in establishments that paid less than average wages in April 1935 than in those that paid more. Increases were most frequent among the establishments in the class just below the average (40.0 to 44.9 cents), and were least frequent in the group immediately above (45.0 to 49.9 cents).

(2) Wages were more frequently maintained with little or no change by establishments above than below the average wage of 45.5 cents in April 1935.

(3) Large decreases from 1935 to 1936 occurred most frequently in establishments that paid the lowest wages in April 1935 and most infrequently in establishments with the highest average in 1935.

(4) As regards the general erosion of the wage structure, establishments paying 40 to 45 cents in 1935 had the worst record.

(5) The greatest stability was shown by the group of establishments paying 50 cents or more in 1935. This finding was further substantiated by the extreme stability of earnings in six establishments paying 60 cents an hour or more in 1935, three of which showed almost no change over the year.

Table 7.—Silk and Rayon Textile Establishments Classified by Hourly Earnings in April 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by April 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, April 1935 to April 1936	Number of establishments	Number of establishments in which average hourly earnings in April 1935 were—					
		Less than industry average [1]			More than industry average [1]		
		Total	Under 40.0 cents	40.0 to 44.9 cents	Total	45.0 to 49.9 cents	50 cents and over
More than +2.5 percent	17	12	6	6	5	1	4
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	30	10	8	2	20	10	10
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	39	19	14	5	20	12	8
−7.5 to −12.4 percent	23	12	5	7	11	7	4
−12.5 to −17.4 percent	19	12	7	5	7	6	1
−17.5 percent or more	16	9	6	3	7	4	3
Total	144	74	46	28	70	40	30

[1] The mean average in 1935 was 45.6 cents. The median will average 44.6 cents. In this table 45 cents is regarded as the dividing point.

The geographical distribution of plants does not show any fundamental differences between important producing States as regards changes in average hourly earnings. A few points may be noted incidentally.

(1) Connecticut plants showed marked stability. Eight of the 17 mills reported virtually no change in hourly earnings.

(2) The largest cuts occurred in Pennsylvania, which had four or five mills that showed decreases in average hourly earnings of 27½ percent or more.

(3) Decreases of 17½ percent or more occurred in 15 of the 99 mills reporting from New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island; in none of the other 27 northern mills, and in only 1 of the 18 southern mills. In this respect the situation in silk and rayon contrasted with that found in the case of cotton garments, in which industry the largest cuts occurred with the greatest relative frequency in the South.

Cotton-Textile Industry

In 448 cotton mills reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in both April 1935 and April 1936 average hours worked per week increased from 33.6 to 36.9, or 9.8 percent. The total volume of employment, as measured by man-hours worked, increased 15.2 percent, whereas the number employed increased 5.0 percent. While

most of these mills still operated under code hours, there were 72 establishments that averaged more than 40 hours per week per employee in April 1936.

Average hourly earnings in the 448 establishments decreased from 38.0 cents to 36.8 cents, or 3.2 percent. There was, however, little change in hourly earnings in 209 mills which employed more than half of the total workers; these establishments, with 117,635 wage earners in April 1935, offered earnings in April 1936 that differed from those of April 1935 by not more than 2½ percent. Furthermore, 71 establishments with 34,625 employees increased wages more than 2.5 percent. Wage decreases, however, were twice as frequent as wage increases. Decreases of more than 2½ percent in hourly earnings occurred in 168 establishments with 72,664 employees (one-third of the total). The detailed distribution of wage changes is shown in table 8.

The industry as a whole is to be credited with an attempt to maintain standards of hours and hourly earnings in the face of wage cutting that gave the wage cutter a competitive advantage. The extent of that advantage may not have been evident in the period from April 1935 to April 1936, for business improved markedly. The total number of man-hours worked in the 448 establishments increased from 7,212,000 per week in April 1935 to 8,312,000 in April 1936. All groups of establishments shared in this increase. Even those that increased wages more than 2½ percent showed an increase of 5.3 percent in volume. But the various groups did not share equally. Relative to the total national volume of business there was a loss of competitive position for those establishments that had increased hourly earnings. Their gain is to be contrasted with a 23.6 percent increase in the volume of employment for 94 establishments that decreased hourly earnings from 2½ to 7½ percent. The 18 establishments that cut earnings 17½ percent or more increased the volume of employment 57.7 percent.

The wage changes by individual mills between 1935 and 1936 resulted in an inversion of the wage structure of the industry. Increases in earnings were largely confined to mills that had paid low wages in 1935 and tended merely to bring their earnings into line with the national average. Some few establishments increased wages more than 12½ percent, but they had had extremely low average hourly earnings in April 1935, approximately 31 cents, as against an average for the industry of 38 cents. Those that increased wages more than 2½ percent averaged about 36 cents in 1935. In April 1936 the 5 mills that had made the largest increases averaged 37.0 cents and the 209 mills that had made little or no change in average hourly earnings averaged 37.5 cents as against a combined average for the 448 mills of 36.8 cents.

Table 8.—**Employment, Pay Rolls, and Man-Hours in Cotton-Goods Establishments, Classified by Changes in Hourly Earnings from April 1935 to April 1936**

Change in average hourly earnings, April 1935 to April 1936	Number of establishments	Employment		Pay roll		Man-hours worked	
		1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
More than +2.5 percent	71	24,625	24,756	$304,210	$336,486	841,903	886,925
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	209	117,635	119,992	1,499,533	1,634,132	3,990,728	4,355,927
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	94	42,746	46,671	548,136	643,653	1,405,487	1,730,710
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	56	21,761	24,424	297,942	339,607	731,553	956,418
−17.5 percent or more	18	8,157	9,833	89,615	107,144	242,388	382,164
Total	448	214,924	225,676	2,739,436	3,061,022	7,212,059	8,312,144

The mills that cut wages from 2½ to 17½ percent were on the whole mills paying a higher-than-average wage in April 1935, averaging about 40.7 cents an hour. Wage decreases in most of these mills might therefore have been regarded as compensatory, that is as tending to bring the mills back into line with the national average. Actually, however, the decreases were larger than was necessary to achieve this end. The average hourly earnings of the mills which cut wages from 7½ percent to 17½ percent were 35.5 cents as against the general average of 36.8 cents in April 1936. Eleven mills that made extreme cuts of 22½ percent or more were, even in April 1935, low-wage mills. At that time they had averaged 33.9 cents per hour; in April 1936 they averaged 24.5 cents, about the average figure for the industry preceding the N. R. A.

The extreme movements in wages were confined to the smaller establishments. The four increases of more than 17½ percent were all in plants with less than 400 employees and the four decreases of more than 27½ percent were in plants with less than 1,000 employees.

Average hourly earnings were more stable between 1935 and 1936 in large than in small establishments. Thus two-thirds of the establishments with 1,000 employees or more made either no change in average hourly earnings or one of less than 2½ percent. One-half of the establishments with more than 100 but less than 1,000 employees showed this degree of stability. This was true of only one-fourth of the establishments with less than 100 employees. The greater instability of hourly earnings in the smaller establishments is further shown by the number of mills that increased or decreased wages more than 7½ percent. This range of change in earnings embraced 44 percent of the mills with less than 100 employees, whereas it includes only 21 percent of the mills with 100 to 399 employees and about 14 percent of the mills with 400 employees or more. This tendency toward stability in the larger establishments is shown in table 8.

The table also makes clear, however, the fact that wage cutting in the industry was not confined to, nor particularly characteristic of, small establishments. If the statement is made that the proportion

of extreme wage cuts was higher among small mills than among large mills, it must also be noted that extreme increases were confined entirely to the smaller mills. The most that can be said is that there was slightly greater wage cutting on the average in the smallest establishments than in the establishments with 100 employees or more.

Table 9.—Cotton-Goods Establishments Classified by Number of Employees in April 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by April 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, April 1935 to April 1936	Number of establishments with classified number of employees in April 1935				
	Total	Less than 100	100-399	400-999	1,000 or more
More than +17.5 percent	5	4	1	----	----
+17.5 to +7.6 percent	20	4	10	6	----
+7.5 to +2.6 percent	46	9	19	17	1
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	209	18	91	69	31
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	94	13	41	31	9
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	56	18	24	8	6
−17.5 to −27.4 percent	13	4	3	5	1
−27.5 percent or more	5	2	2	1	----
Total	448	72	191	137	48

Wage changes were not confined to any particular region. The median change among southern mills was the same as among northern mills. The South showed slightly greater stability than the North, wages being essentially unchanged in 51 percent of the southern establishments as against 36 percent of the northern establishments. The wage changes fell within the limits of plus or minus 7½ percent in 80 percent of the southern establishments as against 71 percent of the northern establishments. In contrast with this situation, however, it must be noted that exceptional changes were relatively about twice as frequent in the South as in the North, both as regards increases of more than 7½ percent and as regards decreases of 22½ percent or more. Such extreme changes occurred among about 9 percent of the southern mills as against 5.2 percent of the northern mills.

In general, wage decreases were more frequent among cotton mills paying more than average wages in April 1935 than among those paying less. For such a comparison it is desirable to distinguish between northern and southern mills, for the wages in the two districts differ substantially. Approximately half of the 332 establishments in Southern States paid less than 35 cents in April 1935. Among the 163 mills paying less than 35 cents approximately half made decreases in hourly earnings of 0.5 percent or more. On the other hand, among the 20 southern mills paying 40 cents or more in 1935 the median decrease was approximately 3.5 percent. The stability of earnings in southern mills paying less than 35 cents in April 1935 is borne out by the general distribution of wage changes in such mills. Half made no significant change in average hourly earnings

in the next year; 14 percent increased earnings from 2½ to 7½ percent, and a corresponding decrease was made by an equal number. Among the mills that had paid 35 to 40 cents an hour in April 1935, also, 54 percent made no change from 1935 to 1936. But this group differed from that which had paid less than the average, in that those mills which did change wages generally revised their scales downward. Only 10 of the 149 mills increased average hourly earnings by more than 2½ percent, whereas 37 decreased earnings from 2½ to 7½ percent and 21 increased earnings by more than 7½ percent. This tendency to reduce wages in the high-wage mills is fully confirmed by the situation in 20 mills paying 40 cents an hour or more in 1935.

In the North, as in the South, wage decreases were relatively more frequent among mills that had paid more than average hourly earnings in 1935.

Brick and Tile Industry

AVERAGE hourly earnings in 222 identical brick and tile establishments decreased from 45.1 cents in May 1935 to 44.3 cents in 1936, or 1.7 percent. This is the smallest decrease in hourly earnings so far shown, though by the spring of 1936 code hours in this industry had become little more than a memory. Eighty-nine percent of the work being done was in establishments with standard hours presumably in excess of those in the code.

The stability of average hourly earnings for the industry as a whole tends to hide extreme changes in individual plants. Only 54 establishments made neither increases nor decreases of more than 2½ percent in hourly earnings. There were 49 establishments, with 4,001 wage earners in 1935, that decreased hourly earnings by 2½ to 12½ percent, and 63, with 3,722 wage earners, that increased earnings by this amount. More than half of the 13,263 wage earners were therefore in plants making substantial wage changes. There were also 35 establishments, with 1,532 wage earners, which decreased earnings by more than 12½ percent, and 21 establishments, with 538 wage earners, who had increases of this amount.

The brick and tile industry differs from the others in this study in the extent to which competition is localized. Under such conditions, with unequal expansion in building activity in different parts of the country, it would be extraordinary to find any perfect relationship between changing wage rates and changes in the volume of business. Yet even here the pattern of competitive gains for the wage cutter is unmistakable. Omitting the irregularities between adjacent classes which are preserved in table 9, we may note a 36-percent increase in business for those establishments increasing wages 7½ to 17½ percent, a 45-percent increase for those making little or no wage change, and a 62-percent expansion for those cutting wages 7½ to 22½ percent. Finally, the 12 establishments that cut wages by more than 22½ percent gained 135 percent in the volume of employment offered.

Table 10.—Man-Hours Worked in Brick and Tile Establishments, Classified by Changes in Hourly Earnings from May 1935 to May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Number of establishments	Total man-hours worked		Percent of increase
		May 1935	May 1936	
Over +17.5 percent	12	6,863	16,435	139.5
+17.5 to +7.6 percent	26	45,168	61,373	35.8
+7.5 to +2.6 percent	32	91,348	142,115	55.6
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	54	126,515	183,763	45.2
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	42	116,837	202,156	73.0
−7.5 to −22.4 percent	44	65,421	105,803	61.7
−22.5 percent or more	12	11,934	28,090	135.4
Total	222	464,086	739,715	59.4

Only one group offered serious exception to this general tendency. The group which increased hourly earnings by more than 17.5 percent actually made the largest gain in the number of man-hours worked. This occurrence was apparently not a statistical "freak", such as might occur in any group of only 12 items. The characteristic of relatively large gains among those making large wage increases persists even when a more detailed classification of the 12 establishments is made. The simultaneous increase of volume and wages is probably to be explained by marked local expansions of business making possible the large wage increases.

Among brick and tile establishments, as in the other industries so far examined, hourly earnings were most stable from the spring of 1935 to 1936 in the larger establishments (table 11). Thus 72 percent of the plants with 50 wage earners or more in 1935 confined changes in hourly earnings within the limits of gains or decreases of 7½ percent, whereas only 47 percent of the smaller plants confined movements within these limits. Only 1 of the 21 establishments with 150 employees or more changed earnings by as much as 12½ percent, whereas such changes were made by more than a quarter of the plants with less than 25 employees.

Table 11.—Brick and Tile Establishments Classified by Number of Employees in May 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Total	Number of establishments with classified number of employees in May 1935			
		Under 25	25–49	50–99	100 and over
More than +12.5 percent	21	14	3	3	1
+12.5 to +7.6 percent	17	10	2	2	3
+7.5 to +2.6 percent	32	10	4	8	10
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	54	19	6	20	9
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	42	14	7	11	10
−7.5 to −12.4 percent	21	13	2	4	2
−12.5 percent or more	35	12	12	8	3
Total	222	92	36	56	38

Again it must be noted that the smallest plants as such were not the worst wage cutters. Their hourly earnings were merely more unstable than earnings in larger establishments. Thus 14 of those with less than 25 employees increased wages 12½ percent or more and 12 made decreases of this amount. The tendency to decrease wages was more marked in the several size groups from 25 to 149 employees. Among such establishments decreases of 12½ percent were twice as frequent as increases of that amount. Large decreases do not disappear until plants with 200 or more employees are reached. Taken as an entire group, the earnings record of the plants with less than 25 employees is almost as good as that of those with more than 100. For both of these groups the median of the changes in average hourly earnings for plants was a very slight decrease. But the plants of intermediate size, those with 25 to 99 employees, showed a median decrease of slightly more than 2 percent.

Among the reporting establishments there were 51 in Southern States and 171 in Northern States. Each group was averaging about 44 hours per week per employee in May 1936. But as regards earnings, the southern brick and tile establishments in the sample decreased from 39.3 cents per hour in May 1935 to 37.9 cents in May 1936, or 3.7 percent. The northern plants averaged 47.0 cents in 1935 and 46.5 cents in 1936, a decrease of 0.9 percent. In the South decreases were twice as frequent as increases. Large decreases were not offset by large increases.

In the South the number of reporting establishments was too small to justify fine classifications in relating wage changes to earnings in 1935. The southern average in May 1935 was 39.3 cents.

Despite the small number of cases, it is probably valid to conclude that the largest increases occurred among the lowest-wage plants and that the largest decreases from 1935 to 1936 were most frequently in the plants with wages in 1935 above the average. But beyond this point there is no apparent relationship of wage changes from 1935 to 1936 and wages paid in 1935. In all classes, about half of the establishments decreased wages by 2½ percent or more, whereas roughly a quarter tended to make increases of more than this amount.

In the North, as in the South, there had been great variation in average hourly earnings in May 1935 among the reporting establishments. The correlation between earnings in May 1935 and subsequent wage changes is imperfect. But in general one may say that extremely large increases occurred most frequently in plants having low hourly earnings in 1935 and, conversely, that exceptional decreases occurred most frequently in plants that had paid better-than-average wages in 1935 (table 12). Furthermore, establishments that fell far below the northern average, tended with few exceptions to increase wages,

and among these plants paying less than 35 cents in 1935 more than half the increases exceeded 12½ percent. On the other hand, about two-thirds of the establishments paying 55 cents or more made decreases, and about half made decreases of more than 17½ percent.

The least instability of earnings was in the group paying from 45 to 50 cents an hour. (The northern average in May 1935 was 47 cents.) As the rate paid in 1935 departed from the average, hourly earnings became increasingly unstable.

Table 12.—Northern Brick and Tile Establishments Classified by Hourly Earnings in May 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by May 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, May 1935 to May 1936	Number with average hourly earnings in May 1935 of—						
	Total	Under 35	35.0—39.9	40.0—44.9	45.0—49.9	50.0—54.9	55.0 and over
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
More than +12.5 percent	17	4	4	5	2	1	1
+12.5 to +2.6 percent	42	4	8	9	6	11	4
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	42	2	5	13	14	7	1
−2.5 to −12.4 percent	44		5	19	12	5	3
−12.5 percent or more	26	1	3	3	3	8	8
Total	171	11	25	49	37	32	17

Hardware Manufacturing

THE manufacture of hardware was originally selected for the purpose of examining wage changes in an industry which showed an increase in average hourly earnings. In 86 identical hardware manufacturing establishments reporting in both May 1935 and May 1936, average hourly earnings increased from 56.0 cents to 57.6 cents, or 2.9 percent. Average hours worked per week per employee increased from 34.3 to 41.3, or 20.3 percent, whereas the number of employees increased only 2.5 percent. The total volume of employment, as indicated by man-hours worked, increased 23.0 percent. Almost two-thirds of this work was done in establishments in which the average for all wage earners on the pay roll was more than 40 hours per week in May 1936. The 42 establishments in this class accounted for 673,400 man-hours of the total of 1,044,907 worked in all reporting establishments.

An analysis of the wage changes in these manufacturing establishments confirms in general the findings which have been made in the other industries examined.

In the first place, there was diversity in the change in average hourly earnings from the spring of 1935 to the spring of 1936. Thirty-two establishments had earnings in May 1936 that were within 2½ percent of the average hourly earnings in 1935, 17 increased earnings by 2½ to 7½ percent, and 14 decreased earnings by a like amount. Increases

of more than 7½ percent were made by five establishments and decreases of more than this amount by 18.[10]

In the second place, in the hardware as in other industries studied, large establishments conform more closely to the average practice of the industry as regards wage changes than do smaller ones. In the hardware industry this meant a marked tendency to make little change. Thus 5 of the 7 establishments with more than 500 employees made neither increases nor decreases of more than 2½ percent. This was true of 20 of the 48 with 50 to 500 employees, but of only 7 of the 31 plants with fewer employees than this.

The largest hardware establishments had the best record as regards wage changes and the smallest ones had the worst record. This does not mean that large increases were not made by small establishments. Indeed, the frequency of relatively large increases was greater among small than among large establishments. But for every such increase among small establishments there were several decreases. Thus five small plants increased, and five decreased hourly earnings by 2½ to 7½ percent. But only 2 increased hourly earnings by more than 7½ percent, while 12 made decreases of this amount.[11]

If the only data relating wage changes to volume of business were that for hardware, the evidence would have to be regarded as inconclusive. The great preponderance of the business reported in May 1936 was carried on in establishments that had either increased wages or had decreased them by less than 2½ percent. Such establishments, which included all of those with 500 employees or more, worked 893,000 man-hours of the 1,044,000 reported by all plants. The total number of man-hours worked in a week in May by these establishments was 21.1 percent greater in 1936 than in 1935. There was no significant difference between this increase and that reported for establishments that cut wages by 2½ to 7½ percent.

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[10] It has so far proved impossible to make any satisfactory generalizations with reference to the relationship of wages paid in May 1935 and wage changes between that time and May 1936. One reason for this is that increases in several large establishments caused the arithmetic average of hourly earnings to rise, whereas, as has just been indicated, decreases occurred more frequently than increases. The median change, if each plant be regarded as a unit without regard to the number of its employees, was a decrease of about 0.8 percent. All that can be said with certainty on the subject of the relationship of earnings in May 1935 and subsequent wage changes is that none of the six plants averaging less than 40 cents an hour in May 1935 decreased wages by more than 2½ percent and that three of them made increases of more than this amount. On the other hand, half of the establishments averaging more than 60 cents an hour made decreases of more than 2½ percent, and most of these decreases exceeded 12½ percent.

[11] The plants of intermediate size fit into this pattern. They showed much greater variation as regards wage changes than large plants and less than the small ones. For example, changes of as much as 7½ percent were reported for 9 of the 48 plants of intermediate size and for 14 of the 31 smallest plants. The tendency in large plants was slightly to increase hourly earnings, whereas in plants of intermediate size there was a slightly greater tendency to decrease them. Thus, 10 increased hourly earnings by 2½ to 7½ percent and 3 by more than 7½ percent. Decreases of these amounts were made respectively in 9 and 6 establishments. But the balance between increases and decreases was closer in these plants than in the smallest ones. In this last respect hardware differs from some of the other industries studied.

However, in view of the findings in other industries, significance does attach to the differences in the increased business volume of the establishments that decreased hourly earnings by 2½ to 7½ percent and of those that made larger decreases. There were 14 establishments in the first group and 18 in the second. In each group there was an average of about 100 employees per establishment. Those that made the smaller decrease gained 21.7 percent in the number of man-hours worked. The others gained on the average 54.8 percent.

Sawmills

THE 308 sawmills reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed an increase in man-hours of 29 percent between April 1935 and April 1936, but an increase of only 13.5 percent in number of employees. In the northern sample the percentage increase in the total number of hours worked was smaller than in the South, but the increase in number of employees was greater. Thus, in northern plants man-hours increased 25.6 percent and in southern plants 33.8 percent, but the number of employees in northern plants increased 15.5 percent as compared to 10.5 percent in the South.

In April 1935 the great majority of the 308 establishments were observing the 40-hour code provision. But in April 1936, 177, or 57.5 percent of the number of establishments, averaged more than 40 hours per week per worker on the pay roll. In terms of man-hours, virtually three-fifths of the work in 1936 was done in establishments with an average week of 40 hours or more.

Three distinct regions are represented in the sample of reporting sawmills. They differ sharply in certain characteristics, as, for example, in average hourly earnings. On the other hand, in certain developments the same type of relationship is found in each region. Thus, in each region those mills that decreased wages more than the average (or increased less than the average) gained a competitive advantage.

The southern establishments most frequently disregarded code hours between 1935 and 1936. They also decreased average hourly earnings. Average weekly hours per employee in 119 southern establishments increased from 39.0 to 47.2, or 21.0 percent. Average hourly earnings decreased from 31.8 to 29.8 cents, or 6.3 percent.

The Northwest [12] was characterized by a much smaller increase in hours and by rising earnings. Hours increased from 36.2 per week to 38.8 The number of employees, having increased by 22.6 percent, more or less approximated the increased volume of business evidenced by a 31.4-percent increase in the total number of man-hours worked. Average hourly earnings rose from 56.4 cents in April 1935 to 62.6 cents in April 1936, a gain of 11.0 percent.

[12] Includes all establishments reporting from California, Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. These several States each show the same pattern of wage change from 1935 to 1936.

The remaining Northern States constitute a less homogeneous region. Hours were lengthened from 37.4 per week to 43.0, while earnings, which had been 37.8 cents per hour in April 1935, increased only 0.4 percent. But the number of employees in these 84 mills decreased by 4.1 percent, while the volume of work available, as evidenced by total man-hours worked, increased 10.0 percent.

In all three of these districts there was the same diversity of change in hourly earnings that characterized the other industries so far studied. For example, 88 of the 105 northwestern establishments made increases of 2½ percent, while 7 made decreases of this amount. In the case of 55 establishments, that is to say in more than half, the increase was from 7½ to 17½ percent, while another 17 made still larger increases.

Amid this diversity of movement between the mills within each district, however, the fundamental contrast of the regions continues. That is, while every region contained mills that increased wages and others which decreased them, increases were the rule in the Northwest and decreases predominated in the South. In the other Northern States, for which the average of all mills showed little change, the number of increases and decreases was about the same.

While large cuts were not confined to southern mills, they did occur with greater frequency in this region. A third of the southern mills decreased hourly earnings 12½ percent or more. In the Northwestern States there was only one decrease as large as this, and that was in a mill of negligible size. In the other Northern States such a decrease occurred in less than one-tenth of the reporting mills. These mills also were predominantly small. None had as many as 100 employees (table 13).

As regards changes in hourly earnings, in all sections of the country employees fared better in large than in small establishments. But because the general tendency was toward increases in hourly earnings in the Northwest and toward lower wages in the South, the advantage of the employees in large plants took the form of substantial increases in the Northwest and the form of stability in the South. In the other Northern States, where in general there was little change in hourly earnings, the larger establishments made more increases than decreases. This diversity of movement necessitates separate regional analyses if the relationship of size of establishment and wage change is to be developed. This is the more true as the relative importance of the various sizes of establishments in the sample differs greatly among the several regions.

Not only did the larger establishments in the Northwest have a better record for increases than the smaller ones, but there was less diversity of changes in hourly earnings among large than among small establishments.

Table 13.—Sawmills Classified by Number of Employees in April 1935 and Changes in Hourly Earnings by April 1936

Change in average hourly earnings, April 1935 to April 1936	Establishments with classified average number of employees in April 1935			
	Total	Under 100	100–199	200 and over
Northwest [1]				
More than +17.5 percent	17	9	3	5
+17.5 to +12.6 percent	25	6	5	14
+12.5 to +7.6 percent	30	6	7	17
+7.5 to +2.6 percent	16	5	7	4
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	10	7		3
−2.5 percent or more	7	6	1	
Total	105	39	23	43
	Total	Under 25	25–99	100 and over
Other North				
More than +17.5 percent	1	1		
+17.5 to +7.6 percent	9	4	1	4
+7.5 to +2.6 percent	12	5	3	4
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	38	11	14	13
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	11	8	1	2
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	8	2	5	1
−17.5 percent or more	5	4	1	
Total	84	35	25	24
South				
More than +2.5 percent	18	2	9	7
+2.5 to −2.4 percent	32	3	8	21
−2.5 to −7.4 percent	22	4	9	9
−7.5 to −17.4 percent	18	3	8	7
−17.5 percent or more	29	7	14	8
Total	119	19	48	52

[1] California, Washington, Oregon, and Idaho.

The remaining northern establishments reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics are characteristically smaller than those in the Northwest. However, in the other Northern States, also, the larger establishments made more favorable wage changes from 1935 to 1936 than the smaller ones. In this region, as in the Northwest, a second item of note is the relative lack of diversity in the movement of hourly earnings in the larger establishments. Mills with more than 25 but fewer than 100 employees shared the stability of the larger establishments in that 56 percent showed approximately the same average hourly earnings in 1935 as in 1936, but, unlike the large establishments, such changes as were made were almost twice as often decreases as increases.

In the southern region average hourly earnings declined. Decreases were made in establishments of all sizes. But the general tendencies found in the other two regions persist. Wage cuts grew more frequent and were more severe as the size of the establishments decreased.

Comparing wage changes from 1935 to 1936 with average hourly earnings in the several mills in 1935, we find evidence of a general tendency in each of the three regions for earnings to seek the level

common to the area. Considered as a group, low-wage mills in 1935 made more favorable changes in earnings from 1935 to 1936 than mills that had paid above the average.

It should be noted, however, that this leveling did not take place from region to region. No southern mill reported average hourly earnings in 1935 as high as the average of 56.4 cents for the northwestern region. In 69 of the 119 southern mills the average was less than 30 cents. Only nine paid 40 cents or more. Yet from 1935 to 1936 southern average hourly rates went still lower, while northwestern rates increased.

In the northwestern region average hourly earnings increased 11.0 percent. Increases were common to establishments of all wage groups. But increases of 12½ percent or more occurred with relatively greater frequency among low-wage than among high-wage mills. Thus, 6 of the 8 mills paying less than 45 cents in 1935 made increases of at least 12½ percent, as compared with 36 of the remaining 97 mills that had paid higher wages. Both among mills paying 45 to 55 cents in 1935 and among those paying 55 cents or more, there were 18 establishments that increased hourly earnings by 12½ percent or more. But, as there were only 43 mills in the first group and 54 in the second, the relative frequency of increases of 12½ percent was greater among mills paying less than the regional average per hour.

Conversely, decreases of 2½ percent or more in the Northwest tended to occur only in sawmills whose average hourly earnings were above 55 cents in April 1935. Whereas 5 of the 54 mills which had paid more than 55 cents an hour in 1935 made hourly cuts of 2½ percent or more, only 2 of the 51 mills which had paid less than 55 cents made similar cuts. Decreases were relatively most frequent in the mills paying more than 65 cents.

There was a consistent relationship in the southern sample between wage increases from 1935 to 1936 and hourly earnings paid in 1935, of the same order as in the Northwest. Increases were relatively most frequent in mills paying less in 1935 than the regional average of 31.8 cents per hour. There were no increases of more than 2½ percent among the southern mills that had averaged 40 cents an hour or more. Among the 41 mills that had averaged 30 to 40 cents in 1935, one-tenth made increases of 2½ percent or more. On the other hand, such an increase was made by one-sixth of those that had averaged 25 to 30 cents and by one-third of those that had averaged less than 25 cents.

Furthermore, large increases in hourly earnings occurred with greater frequency among mills with low hourly earnings in 1935. Thus there were no increases of 7½ percent or more among mills paying 35 cents or more in 1935. There was only one such increase among the 28 mills that had averaged 30 to 35 cents. On the other hand, 3 of the 52 paying 25 to 30 cents and 4 of the 17 paying less than 25 cents in 1935 granted increases of as much as 7½ percent from 1935 to 1936.

But no persistent relationship existed in the southern sample between wages paid in 1935 and the frequency of decreases. Such a relationship, which was found in the Northwest, is suggested by the fact that wage decreases were least frequent in the case of the lowest wage mills. Only 7 of the 17 mills which averaged less than 25 cents an hour in 1935 made decreases of 2½ percent or more between 1935 and 1936, whereas three-fifths of all reporting mills made such cuts. However, the relationship thus suggested between wage changes and wages paid in 1935 does not persist at higher wage levels. Thus, while wage decreases were less frequent in mills paying less than 25 cents than in those paying 25 to 30 cents, there was no sharp distinction in this regard between mills paying 25 to 30 cents in April 1935 and those which paid 30 to 35 cents. Furthermore, as large a proportion in these wage groups made decreases as among mills averaging 40 cents or more.[13]

The severity of the wage decreases was greater among southern mills paying low wages in 1935 than among those paying higher wages. This is true whether we consider the number of mills that reduced wages by 22½ percent or more as a proportion of all mills in each wage group or as a proportion merely of those in each group that made some decrease. Either comparison shows that large reductions of earnings occurred most frequently among mills that had paid less than 25 cents an hour in 1935 and least frequently among those that had paid 35 cents or more. Decreases of more than 32½ percent occurred only in plants that had paid less than 35 cents in 1935. The groups that had paid 25 to 30 cents and 30 to 35 cents did not differ from each other as regards the relative frequency with which wage decreases of 22½ percent occurred, but did occupy an intermediate position in comparison with the lowest and the highest wage groups.

In Northern States other than in the northwestern area the average for hourly earnings in April 1935 was 37.8 cents, which changed by only 0.4 percent by April 1936. These mills, like those in the Northwest, showed a more consistent tendency toward a leveling of wages than was the case in the South. Half of the 25 northern mills which paid average hourly rates of less than 35 cents in April 1935, increased average hourly earnings by 1 percent or more, whereas half of the 24 mills which paid 40 cents or over at that time decreased hourly earnings by 1 percent or more. Among the 35 mills paying between 35 and 40 cents in 1935—that is, about the average for the region—half made decreases of more than 0.8 percent.

Each of these three wage groups showed a high degree of stability as regards wage rates. This was greatest for the group with the lowest

[13] The same general conclusions follow from a consideration of the proportions which decreased earnings by 7½ percent or more.

As further illustration of the apparent lack of relationship on the point under consideration, it may be noted that the proportion of decreases among the small group of mills paying 35 to 40 cents was no greater than among those paying less than 25 cents.

average hourly earnings in 1935. Half of the mills which had paid less than 35 cents in 1935, as compared to two-fifths for each of the other two groups, made changes of less than 2½ percent in either direction.

Such changes as were made, however, tended to be increases in the cases of mills paying below the average in 1935 and decreases among the others. Thus, of the mills paying less than 35 cents an hour in 1935, nine made increases and three made decreases of 2½ percent or more. Among the mills paying more than 35 cents in 1935, however, 13 made increases and 21 made decreases of this amount.[14]

Nationally, the competitive influence of changes in average hourly earnings was reflected in the man-hours worked. The 50 establishments which increased average hourly earnings by 2½ percent or more from 1935 to 1936 had increased business by 24.2 percent. The 80 establishments which made virtually no wage changes increased business by 29 percent, while the 55 which made decreases in average hourly earnings of 2½ to 12½ percent increased business by 31 percent. But the 45 with wage decreases of 12½ percent or more increased business by 58 percent.

Among southern establishments this same competitive pattern emerges. The 18 that increased hourly earnings by more than 2½ percent gained 22.9 percent in total man-hours of work. The 32 that made either no change or one of less than 2½ percent gained 25.5 percent. These 50 establishments together had about 60 percent of the total number of hours worked in reporting southern establishments and had a better-than-average record as regards wage changes. On the other hand, the 40 sawmills that decreased earnings by 2½ to 22½ percent gained 36.3 percent in man-hour volume, while those that cut by more than 22½ percent gained 75.5 percent. Another way of describing this competitive gain is to say that the total volume of business of southern sawmills increased so much that all groups of establishments shared in it. But while mills that cut earnings by more than 2½ percent from 1935 to 1936 had had only two-fifths of the business in 1935, they secured three-fifths of the added volume by 1936.

In the Northwest the pattern is sufficiently regular to distinguish clearly those who made average wage increases from those who did not. There were 72 mills that increased average hourly earnings by

[14] As regards wage changes, the group paying 35 to 40 cents differed from those paying over 40 cents chiefly in that both increases and decreases, when they occurred, were larger in the mills which had paid 40 cents or more in April 1935. Thus, among mills paying approximately average wages, only two of the eight that made increases gave increases greater than 7½ percent; whereas four of the five increases among mills that had averaged 40 cents or more were of this amount. Similarly, although decreases occurred with equal relative frequency among both groups, decreases of more than 7½ percent were slightly less common than smaller decreases in the mills which had paid 35 to 40 cents in 1935 but were twice as frequent in the mills which had previously paid over 40 cents an hour.

more than 7½ percent. They had 83.2 percent of the reported volume of man-hours in 1935 and still had 79.6 percent in 1936. These mills shared in the generally increased volume of business for sawmills in this region, having themselves an average increase of 25.7 percent in the number of man-hours worked. But the lion's share went to the mills whose wage changes lagged behind the general movement. For example, 16 sawmills with an average increase in hourly earnings of 3.8 percent gained 37.0 percent in the total number of man-hours worked.[15] Seventeen mills which averaged 54.3 cents in 1935 and 54.4 cents in 1936 gained 88.7 percent in volume.[16]

While the evidence from each region indicates that a policy of wage decrease enabled a few establishments to obtain a slightly larger proportion of the business available, the conclusion must be used with caution. Two striking exceptions are present in the case of sawmills. First and most important is the fact that the policy of increasing wages in the Northwest, even though coupled with widespread decreases in the South, did not result in any apparent competitive disadvantage to the Northwest. The southern reporting mills had 33.8 percent more man-hours of work in April 1936 than in April 1935; those in the Northwest had an increase of almost as much, 31.3 percent. The other northern reporting mills made no change in hourly earnings and gained only 10 percent in volume, thus as a group gaining less than either the South or the Northwest. In the second place, moderate differences in wage policy did not necessarily give rise to competitive advantage or disadvantage. Thus, a group of 25 establishments in the Northwest increased hourly earnings about 15 percent and gained 29.8 percent in volume, while another group of 30 increased wages about 10 percent and gained only 22.7 percent in volume.

The combinations of considerably longer hours at decreased pay rates in the South and of slightly longer hours at an increased rate of pay in the North both produced, on the average, higher weekly earnings per employee. In the Northwest the average increase was from $20.42 per week in April 1935 to $24.29 in April 1936, or 19.0 percent. Among the northwestern mills that increased hourly earnings more than the average from 1935 to 1936, average weekly earnings rose primarily in response to higher hourly rates. Thus there were 17 mills with an average increase in hourly earnings of 23.0 percent and in average weekly earnings of 26.3 percent. Longer hours played a larger role in increasing weekly earnings in the case of establishments making smaller wage increases. Thus, 25 mills increasing hourly

[15] It may be noted that these mills averaged 58.1 cents in 1935 which was slightly above the general average. Therefore, they would not have had to increase by as much as the average for the region to pay the regional average in 1936. Actually, however, the difference between a 3.8-percent increase and an average increase of 11.0 percent was so large that their average hourly earnings of 60.3 cents were below the regional average for 1936.

[16] Some mills in the group made increases of less than 2½ percent and some made decreases of as much as 12½ percent.

earnings of approximately 15 percent raised weekly earnings 19.0 percent, and another group of 30 increasing hourly earnings from 7½ to 12½ percent increased weekly earnings by 16.9 percent. Finally, there were 33 mills making smaller increases than this in hourly earnings from 1935 to 1936. On the whole, they had paid average wages in 1935, but they had operated only 33.0 hours per employee as against a general average of 36.2. These mills increased average weekly earnings from $18.62 to $22.40, or 20.3 percent, by securing an increased volume that permitted average hours of 39.1. Their average hourly earnings had risen only 1.5 percent and were so much below the general average for the region that their average weekly earnings in 1936 were also below the average.

In southern establishments reporting, average weekly earnings increased from $12.40 to $14.09, or 13.6 percent. There were 82 establishments that did not decrease hourly earnings by more than 12½ percent. Their average weekly earnings increased from $12.54 to $14.62, or 16.6 percent. There was almost no difference in the amount of this increase in weekly earnings as between groups of plants that increased or decreased hourly earnings. But in the first group the increase in weekly earnings was due to a small increase in hourly earnings in combination with a moderate increase in hours per week. Thus, in the 18 plants that gave an average increase of 2½ percent or more in hourly earnings, hours were lengthened only 7.8 percent, accounting for but half of the increase in the amount in the weekly pay envelope. On the other hand, employees in the 32 establishments which cut hourly earnings from 2½ to 12½ percent worked almost exactly a quarter again as long per week in 1936 as in 1935 to increase their weekly earnings by one-sixth.

There were also 37 southern establishments that decreased hourly earnings by more than 12½ percent. For the group as a whole the decrease averaged 23.0 percent. Average weekly earnings rose even for the workers in these plants. But the increase was only from $11.89 to $12.21, the equivalent of pay for 1 hour at their 1935 rates, whereas actually the men worked 12.7 hours more than in April 1935. They averaged 50.7 hours per week in April 1936. Their hourly earnings had fallen from 31.3 to 24.1 cents.

Within this latter group were 8 mills with 721 employees in 1936 that had cut earnings by more than 32½ percent to an average level of 18.8 cents per hour. Weekly hours were increased from 37.4 in 1935 to 47.4 in 1936. Despite 10 added hours of work, wage earners in these plants received less per week in 1936 than in 1935. The respective averages of weekly earnings were $8.90 and $11.06. At the rates prevailing in 1936 they would have had to work 59 hours a week to equal their weekly pay in 1935.

Wage cutting frequently results in a decrease in the productivity of workers. This effect is related to the severity of the cut. Such a decrease in productivity dissipates the advantage that the employer anticipated in reducing wages. The wise employer is concerned not with wage rates but with labor costs. There is evidence in this study that the management in these eight mills may have overlooked this fact. At all events they were not the mills that gained the most business. They had only 46 percent more business in 1936 than in 1935, while those that cut hourly earnings by 30 percent gained 79 percent in volume. Large as this decrease in rates was, at least these mills offered 75 cents more in 1936 for 52.9 hours of work than they had paid for 35.3 hours in 1935.

But whether or not the eight mills that decreased weekly earnings lost out in competition with those that had at least retained the weekly wage, a 46-percent increase in business was still well ahead of the average gain for all reporting southern mills. And well it might be. For the wage cut was equivalent to demanding, after each employee had been paid for an hour's work at the rates in force in 1935, that he work 30 minutes for nothing. Except as this resulted in enough ill will to cut efficiency by one-third, it must have resulted in an improvement of the employer's competitive position.

Employment in the Engineering Profession, 1929 to 1934

ANALYSIS has been made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of reports from 52,589 professional engineers, showing the kinds of employment engaged in at specified periods. The study, undertaken in May 1935 at the request of the American Engineering Council,[2] established the following general findings:

Over the 5-year period ending December 1934, the number of persons in the engineering profession increased by 25.3 percent. This rate of increase was much in excess of available engineering employment opportunities.

The growth among the several professional classes over the period 1930–34 ranged from 17.6 percent for mining and metallurgical to 62.5 percent in the case of chemical and ceramic engineers.

The opportunities for engineering employment differed markedly among the professional classes. Thus, over the 5-year period, and for the profession as a whole, private engineering employment declined by 8.2 percent, but it increased by more than a third for chemical and ceramic engineers. There was little increase or decrease for electrical, mining and metallurgical, and mechanical and industrial engineers. In the case of the civil engineers, however, there was a decrease of about one-third in private engineering employment.

All professional classes participated in the increases in employment of engineers by public authorities. The civil engineers were most affected. The proportion of this group employed by public authorities increased from 40.0 percent in 1929 to 48.5 in 1934.

The fact that available engineering opportunities did not keep pace with the increase in the number of men trained to enter the profession brought about changes in the proportions of those who were unemployed, or engaged in nonengineering work.

In 1929 private engineering furnished by far the greatest employment for engineers. For civil engineers this covered 54.3 percent. There was a range of from 80.6 to 87.3 percent among the four remaining professional classes. By December 1932 private engineering

[1] Prepared by Andrew Fraser, Jr., of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions.

[2] This is the third of a series of summary articles covering results of the survey. For information on educational qualifications and unemployment in the engineering profession, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1936 and January 1937, respectively. The detailed information will be published in bulletin form.

among civil engineers had dropped to 37.6 percent and by December 1934 to 31.8 percent. There was also a continuous decline in this type of employment among electrical engineers; only 63.1 percent reporting such employment in December 1934. There was only a slight improvement over 1932 for the remaining professional classes. In 1934 these three averaged 69.1 percent.

Nonengineering employment increased sharply from 1929 to 1932 and in equal measure for all professional classes, absorbing many more engineers than did public engineering, in which employment also increased. But despite the fact that the proportions of all engineers in nonengineering employment rose from 6.3 percent in 1929 to 12.0 percent in 1932, there was an even larger increase in unemployment. This situation was common to all professional classes.

Between December 1932 and December 1934 there were further increases in nonengineering employment for all professional classes. The increases were not so great as between 1929 and 1932. Unemployment declined for all professional classes, except for civil engineers.

The sharpest increases in public engineering employment occurred in the period 1932–34.

Of all engineers who reported as being professionally active prior to 1930, only 46.2 percent were in the employ of private firms in 1934; in 1929, 62.2 percent were so engaged. Federal Government employment provided for 10.1 percent in December 1934; in 1929, this field gave employment to only 5.3 percent.

Over the period 1930–34 there was a remarkable stability in the number of engineers classified as independent consultants, and those engineers engaged in the teaching of engineering subjects. This was also the case for those in the employ of State and county, and municipal and other public authorities, especially if considered together.

The net new private firm employment that developed between 1930 and 1934 was secured by newcomers who entered the profession in this period. In absolute number, 5,003, or 16 percent, of the engineers active in the profession before 1930 suffered loss of engineering employment. Some 3,112, or 18 percent, of the new entrants found engineering work with private firms. The increase in public engineering employment was shared by both older and younger engineers.

Scope and Method of Study

THE primary objectives of this analysis were to determine what kinds of engineering employment were most stable, and what types of substitute employment professional engineers found during the depression years, 1930 to 1934, inclusive.

The engineer was requested to check his employment status against only 1 of 14 items for each of the 3 years ending December 31, 1929, 1932, and 1934. In view of the small number reporting in some categories, similarity in the detailed distributions, and the desirability of

discussing unemployment and related data as a whole, these 14 categories were reduced to 8 and are in this article designated thus: (1) Private firm,[3] (2) independent consultant, (3) teaching, (4) Federal, (5) State and county, (6) municipal and other public authority, (7) nonengineering employment, (8) total unemployment.[4] In the ensuing discussion items (1) to (3) inclusive, and (4) to (6) inclusive are hereafter referred to respectively as private engineering employment and public engineering employment, and these two in combination as total engineering employment.

Employment Status of Engineers, 1929–34

DURING the period 1930 to 1934 inclusive, the total number of engineers seeking employment was increased by almost 10,000 per year, largely through the addition of new college graduates. Thirty-two percent of these recent college graduates reported to the Bureau, in contrast to 15 percent of those who were actively engaged in the profession prior to 1930. This disparity necessitated adjusting the sample to obtain the over-all distributions of employment status for 1932 and 1934, thus: The number of engineers graduating in 1930–34 and reporting employment status for 1932 and 1934 were reduced in the ratio of 15 to 32. These derived totals were then added to the remaining reports for 1932 and 1934. This was possible because for separate age groups among both the younger and older engineers the percentage of replies shows homogeneous sampling within these two groups. In determining the adequacy of these samples no allowances were made for deaths or severances from the profession occurring between December 1929 and December 1934.

These distributions for the years 1929, 1932, and 1934 are presented in table 1 for the profession as a whole.

Table 1.—Distribution of All Professional Engineers by Employment Status Reported at End of 1929, 1932, and 1934

[Figures adjusted as explained above.]

Employment status	Number			Percent			Increase or decrease in number		
	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929 to 1932	1932 to 1934	1929 to 1934
Grand total, United States	31,252	35,691	39,161	100.0	100.0	100.0	+4,439	+3,470	+7,909
Engineering employment	29,051	27,787	30,299	93.0	77.9	77.4	−1,264	+2,512	+1,248
Private [1]	22,456	19,797	20,619	71.9	55.5	52.7	−2,659	+822	−1,837
Public [2]	6,595	7,990	9,680	21.1	22.4	24.7	+1,395	+1,690	+3,085
Nonengineering employment	1,969	4,290	5,523	6.3	12.0	14.1	+2,321	+1,233	+3,554
Unemployment	232	3,614	3,339	.7	10.1	8.5	+3,382	−275	+3,107

[1] Includes those engineers in the employ of private firms, independent consultants, reporting "any other employment", and teaching.

[2] Includes those engineers in the employ of Federal, State, county, and municipal governments, and other public authority.

[3] Includes also those reporting as employees of private consulting firms and under "any other employment" in question 6.

[4] Includes also those reporting work relief and direct relief.

Between December 1929 and December 1932 the total number of professional engineers in the sample increased by 4,439, from 31,252 to 35,691. There was a further increase of 3,470 to 39,161 by December 1934. The total increase from 1929 to 1934 amounted to 25.3 percent.

This increase took place during 5 years of depression in which available engineering opportunities were insufficient to absorb the supply of engineers. For December 1932, 3,614 reported unemployment. The percentage of those reporting unemployment declined from 10.1 at the end of 1932 to 8.5 at the end of 1934. But in the face of the continuing influx of engineers, the absolute number of those unemployed declined only slightly, to 3,339 at the end of 1934. Furthermore, while the presence of 6.3 percent of the professional engineers in nonengineering employment in 1929 indicates this was even then an established and normal outlet for them, there was an enormous increase in such work between 1929 and 1932. There was a further, but smaller, increase in nonengineering work between 1932 and 1934. The number reporting themselves as engaged in such work increased from 1,969 in 1929 to 5,523 by December 1934. Among the engineers reporting, 12.0 and 14.1 percent were engaged in nonengineering work in December 1932 and 1934, respectively. There is reason to believe, from a preliminary examination of income data, that the specific nonengineering work of many of those reporting in 1934 was much more frequently of a makeshift character than in 1929.

Engineering employment as a whole declined 4.4 percent between 1929 and 1932. There was a rise by December 1934. The number in the adjusted sample engaged in engineering work increased from 29,051 in December 1929 to 30,299 in December 1934, but this was due primarily to the increases in the public employment of engineers. Private employment decreased by 11.8 percent from 1929 to 1932. Despite some increase from 1932 to 1934, it was still 8.2 percent below the 1929 level at the end of the 5-year period 1930–34.

The dependence upon public employment is further evidenced by the fact that although both classes of engineering employment increased between December 1932 and December 1934, the absolute increase reported in private employment was only half of that obtaining in employment with public authorities. Relative to the numbers so employed in 1932, the rate of increase in public employment was almost five times as great as that in private employment.

The preceding analysis was only concerned with the engineering profession as a whole. Corresponding data for each professional class are presented on an adjusted basis in table 2.

Table 2.—Employment Status at End of 1929, 1932, and 1934 of All Engineers Reporting, by Professional Class

[Figures adjusted as explained on p. 861]

Professional class	Number of engineers								
	Total			In engineering employment					
				Total private [1]			Total public [2]		
	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934
Total, United States	31,252	35,691	39,161	22,456	19,797	20,619	6,595	7,990	9,680
Chemical and ceramic	1,470	1,931	2,389	1,217	1,322	1,640	103	122	143
Civil, agricultural, and architectural	13,786	15,330	16,365	7,477	5,760	5,191	5,510	6,620	7,941
Electrical	6,112	7,276	8,117	5,238	4,940	5,137	350	456	623
Mechanical and industrial	8,455	9,587	10,609	7,374	6,729	7,512	504	643	802
Mining and metallurgical	1,429	1,567	1,681	1,150	1,046	1,139	128	149	171

Professional class	Number of engineers					
	In nonengineering employment			Unemployed [3]		
	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934
Total, United States	1,969	4,290	5,523	232	3,614	3,339
Chemical and ceramic	143	320	459	7	167	147
Civil, agricultural, and architectural	694	1,413	1,556	105	1,537	1,677
Electrical	493	1,155	1,759	31	725	598
Mechanical and industrial	517	1,190	1,518	60	1,025	777
Mining and metallurgical	122	212	231	29	160	140

[1] Includes employees of private firms, independent consultants, "any other employment", and teaching.
[2] Includes Federal, State, county, and municipal governments, and other public authority.
[3] Includes direct relief and work relief.

Over the 5-year period ending December 1934, the number of persons in the engineering profession increased by 25.3 percent. The corresponding increases for the separate professional classes ranged from 17.6 percent for mining and metallurgical engineers to 62.5 percent in the case of chemical and ceramic engineers (table 3).

Table 3.—Percent of Change in Engineering Employment, by Professional Class, 1929 to 1934

[Figures adjusted as explained on page 861]

Professional class	Percent of increase in each professional class, 1929–34	Percent of increase or decrease, 1929–34 in—		
		Total engineering employment	Private [1] engineering employment	Public [2] engineering employment
Total, United States	+25.3	+4.4	−8.2	+46.8
Mining and metallurgical	+17.6	+2.5	−1.0	+33.6
Civil, agricultural, and architectural	+18.7	+1.1	−30.6	+44.1
Mechanical and industrial	+25.5	+5.5	+1.9	+59.1
Electrical	+32.8	+3.1	−1.9	+78.0
Chemical and ceramic	+62.5	+35.1	+34.8	+38.8

[1] Includes employees of private firms, independent consultants, "any other employment", and teaching
[2] Includes employees of Federal, State, county, and municipal governments, and other public authority.

In no professional class did total engineering employment keep pace with the growing number of engineers. The closest balance between the increase in number of engineers and the increase in total engineering employment was 62.5 percent to 35.1 percent for chemical and ceramic engineers. That is, without displacement of such engineers in the profession in 1929 about half of their increase in number could have been absorbed in engineering work. The next highest increase in number, namely, 32.8 percent, occurred among electrical engineers. This was met by an increase of only 3.1 percent in their total engineering employment. Mechanical and industrial engineers fared somewhat better. Their numbers increased by 25.5 percent, while opportunities for engineering employment increased by 5.5 percent. Roughly, one-fifth of the total increase in number of all engineers between 1930 and 1934 was provided for by the growth of new jobs. Clearly, the wide variations in the rates of increase in these professional classes had an important bearing upon the nature of their employment distributions in the period 1929–34.

The data for private and public engineering in table 3 accentuate the differences in available engineering opportunities for each professional class. Thus, over the 5-year period, and for the profession as a whole, although private engineering employment declined by 8.2 percent, it increased by more than a third for chemical and ceramic engineers. There was little increase or decrease for electrical, mining and metallurgical, and mechanical and industrial engineers; but in the case of the civil engineers, there was a decrease of about one-third in private engineering employment.

By contrast, no professional class was excepted from the increases which took place in public engineering employment.

It was, however, the civil engineers who were most affected. For them public employment was an important field in 1929 when 40 percent of all civil engineers were so engaged. The 44.1-percent increase by 1934 in the amount of such employment reported meant an absolute increase of 2,431 jobs over the 5-year period. In contrast, less than 6 percent of electrical and mechanical engineers had been employed by public authorities in 1929. By December 1934, although the numbers of them so engaged had increased by 78.0 and 59.1 percent, respectively, the absolute increases in jobs reported were only 273 for electrical and 298 in the case of mechanical and industrial engineers. For chemical and ceramic, and mining and metallurgical engineers, the absolute increases were, respectively, 40 and 43.

Since the available engineering opportunities did not keep pace with the increases in men trained to enter the profession, there must obviously have been changes in the proportions, first, of those engaged in engineering and second, of those unemployed,[5] or engaged

[5] For discussion see Monthly Labor Review, January 1937 (p. 37): Unemployment Among Professional Engineers.

in nonengineering work. This is evidenced by considering the adjusted data presented in table 4.

Table 4.—Percentage Distribution of Engineers Reporting, by Employment Status and Professional Class, at End of 1929, 1932, and 1934

[Figures adjusted as explained on p. 861]

Professional class	Percent of total in each professional class reporting—											
	Engineering employment						Nonengineering employment			Unemployment [3]		
	Private [1]			Public [2]								
	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934
Total, United States	71.9	55.5	52.7	21.1	22.4	24.7	6.3	12.0	14.1	0.7	10.1	8.5
Chemical and ceramic	82.8	68.5	68.7	7.0	6.3	5.9	9.7	16.6	19.2	.5	8.6	6.2
Civil, agricultural, and architectural	54.3	37.6	31.8	40.0	43.2	48.5	5.0	9.2	9.5	.7	10.0	10.2
Electrical	85.6	67.8	63.1	5.8	6.3	7.8	8.1	15.9	21.7	.5	10.0	7.4
Mechanical and industrial	87.3	70.2	70.8	5.9	6.7	7.6	6.1	12.4	14.3	.7	10.7	7.3
Mining and metallurgical	80.6	66.8	67.9	8.9	9.5	10.1	8.5	13.5	13.7	2.0	10.2	8.3

[1] Includes employees of private firms, independent consultants, "any other employment", and teaching.
[2] Includes employees of Federal, State, county, and municipal governments, and other public authority.
[3] Includes direct relief and work relief.

Private engineering employment furnished by far the greatest amount of employment to engineers. In 1929, even among civil engineers, 54.3 percent were so employed. For the remaining four professional classes, the percentages ranged from 80.6 for mining and metallurgical to 87.3 for mechanical and industrial engineers. These proportions dropped sharply from 1929 to 1932 because of a decrease in the number of private jobs and an increase in the number of engineers. By December 1932, only 37.6 percent of the civil engineers reported as being in private engineering. The range for the remaining four professional classes was from 66.8 to 70.2 percent. By the end of 1934, there was a further decrease in the proportions privately employed among both civil and electrical engineers. The former decreased to 31.8 percent. Among electrical engineers, private engineering work had employed 67.8 percent in 1932 as compared with 63.1 percent in 1934. There was only a slight improvement over 1932 for the remaining professional classes.

In all classes, excepting chemical and ceramic engineers, the proportions engaged in public engineering increased from 1929 to 1934. The most pronounced shift occurred among the civil engineers, namely, from 40.0 percent in 1929 to 48.5 percent in 1934. This in some measure compensated for the large decline in the private engineering employment of this professional class. Indeed, as a result of public employment, the proportion of civil engineers in total engineering employment in both 1932 and 1934 was slightly higher than in any other professional class.

Lack of engineering employment opportunities in the period 1929–32 led to increases in both nonengineering employment and unemployment for all professional classes. In general, the loss of private employment occurred from 1929 to 1932. Nonengineering employment increased sharply, absorbing many more engineers than public engineering work, in which employment also increased. But despite the fact that the proportion of all engineers in nonengineering rose from 6.3 percent in 1929 to 12.0 percent in 1932, there was an even larger increase in unemployment. This situation was common to all professional classes.

There were further increases in the proportions engaged in nonengineering work among all professional classes in the period 1932–34. Among electrical engineers, the rate of increase in the proportion who were in nonengineering employment was three-fourths of that which occurred in 1929–32. But for the remaining professional classes the corresponding rates of increase were only one-third or less. In the case of civil engineers and mining and metallurgical engineers, there were almost no increases in the proportions engaged in nonengineering employment. For each of these groups there was a greater increase from 1932 to 1934 in public than in nonengineering employment. For civil engineers it was much larger. For mechanical engineers the proportions in public engineering rose from 6.7 percent in 1932 to 7.6 percent in 1934, whereas nonengineering embraced 12.4 percent of all mechanical engineers in 1932 and 14.3 percent in 1934. In their case, therefore, the rate of expansion in public engineering employment was less than that which occurred in nonengineering employment.

Employment Status in Comparable Age Groups

Comparison of the distribution of employment status in 1929 of all engineers who entered the profession in the period 1925–29, with that in 1934 of a comparable group who entered the profession between 1930 and 1934, reflects the pressures to which new entrants were subjected during the depression years. It also emphasizes the abnormality of the employment status of the latter in 1934.

In 1929 only 5.3 percent of the most recent graduates with professional training were in nonengineering work and 0.4 percent were unemployed. In other words, all but one-twentieth of those who entered the profession in these 5 years were employed in engineering work in 1929 (table 5). But in 1934, two-fifths of the comparable group of recent engineering graduates [6] were not in regular professional engineering work. No less than 10.6 percent of them were unemployed in December 1934, while 29.4 percent reported as being engaged in nonengineering work.

[6] The term "engineering graduate" is used interchangeably with "entered the profession." The tabulations cover predominantly those who received first degrees in engineering in the years specified, but also include all "other" engineers (such as those whose college work was incomplete) who were 23 to 27 years old at the date of reported employment.

Table 5.—Comparative Employment Status of 2 Groups of Younger Engineers

Age group	Number of engineers						
	Total	In private[1] engineering employment	In public engineering employment			In nonengineering employment	Unemployed[2]
			Federal	State and county	Municipal and other public authority		
1925–29 engineers, who were 23 to 27 years of age in 1929	6,997	5,151	452	618	375	371	30
1930–34 engineers, who were 23 to 27 years of age in 1934	16,872	6,910	1,544	1,272	401	4,959	1,786
	Percent						
1925–29 engineers, who were 23 to 27 years of age in 1929	100.0	73.6	6.5	8.8	5.4	5.3	0.4
1930–34 engineers, who were 23 to 27 years of age in 1934	100.0	40.9	9.2	7.5	2.4	29.4	10.6

[1] Includes employees of private firms, independent consultants, "any other employment," and teaching.
[2] Includes work relief and direct relief.

Of all recent engineers, both in 1929 and in 1934, approximately one-fifth were engaged in the three categories of public engineering. Insofar as any differences existed, there appears to have been a slight decline in the proportions of the 1930–34 group that secured public employment. The decrease in the percentage in State and county employment was only from 8.8 to 7.5. But municipal and other public authorities in 1929 had employed 5.4 percent of the 1925–29 engineers, whereas in 1934 they employed only 2.4 percent of those who entered the profession in the period 1930–34. On the other hand, the Federal Government employed a larger percentage of the recent graduates in 1934 than it had employed in 1929. For 1929, 6.5 percent of the 1925–29 engineers reported themselves as having been employed by the Federal Government, whereas 9.2 percent of the recent entrants to the profession were so employed in 1934.

In 1929 nearly three-fourths of the recent engineers were in private engineering employment. Only 40.9 percent of the 1930–34 engineers so reported for December 1934. Clearly, the abnormally large proportion of the new entrants to the profession who were unemployed or were compelled to find work of a nonengineering nature in 1934 was due primarily to the lack of opportunities in the principal field of engineering activity. A contributory factor of substantial importance, however, was that the number of those graduated from engineering courses in colleges was about 20 percent higher from 1930–34 than from 1925–29. In numbers, this increase was about 10,000 individuals.

This dependence upon private engineering employment is common to the greater part of the engineering profession. A substantial number, however, are normally in the employ of public authorities.

This is borne out by considering the distributions of employment status of all engineers reporting. These data are shown in table 6, divided into three broad classes, by age.[7]

Of all older engineers reporting for December 1929, it will be noted that 71.9 percent were engaged in private engineering, 21.1 percent in public engineering, 6.3 percent in nonengineering work, and only 0.7 percent were unemployed. Of the 71.9 percent in private engineering, 62.2 percent were in the employ of private firms, 4.2 percent in independent consulting work, and 5.5 percent in teaching. In public engineering, the percentages for Federal, State and county, and municipal and other public authorities ranged from 5.3 to 7.4. This situation had an important bearing on the changes which occurred in the subsequent period, especially with regard to substitute employment.

Table 6.—Distribution of Older and Younger Engineers Reporting, by Employment Status, at End of 1929, 1932, and 1934

Employment status	Number						Percent					
	Older engineers [1]			Younger engineers			Older engineers [1]			Younger engineers		
				1930–1932 [2]		1933–1934 [3]				1930–1932 [2]		1933–1934 [3]
	1929	1932	1934	1932	1934	1934	1929	1932	1934	1932	1934	1934
Grand total, United States	31,252	31,252	31,252	9,469	9,469	7,403	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Engineering employment	29,051	25,327	25,548	5,248	6,057	4,070	93.0	81.1	81.8	55.4	64.0	55.0
Private employment	22,456	18,142	17,378	3,532	3,926	2,984	71.9	58.1	55.7	37.3	41.5	40.4
Private firm	19,424	14,894	14,422	3,247	3,748	2,892	62.2	47.7	46.2	34.3	39.6	39.2
Independent consultant	1,303	1,459	1,243	50	25	17	4.2	4.7	4.0	.5	.3	.2
Teaching	1,729	1,789	1,713	235	153	75	5.5	5.7	5.5	2.5	1.6	1.0
Public employment	6,595	7,185	8,170	1,716	2,131	1,086	21.1	23.0	26.1	18.1	22.5	14.6
Federal	1,647	2,063	3,149	531	1,008	536	5.3	6.6	10.1	5.6	10.6	7.2
State and county	2,632	2,884	2,882	927	872	400	8.4	9.2	9.2	9.8	9.2	5.4
Municipal and other public authority	2,316	2,238	2,139	258	251	150	7.4	7.2	6.8	2.7	2.7	2.0
Nonengineering employment	1,969	3,047	3,202	2,651	2,655	2,304	6.3	9.7	10.2	28.0	28.0	31.1
Unemployment	232	2,878	2,502	1,570	757	1,029	.7	9.2	8.0	16.6	8.0	13.9

[1] Includes both graduates and "other" engineers who were professionally active prior to 1930.
[2] Includes both graduates and "other" engineers who entered the profession in the years 1930–32.
[3] Includes both graduates and "other" engineers who entered the profession in the years 1933 and 1934.

Over the 5-year period there was a net change in the distributions of employment affecting 16.8 percent of the "older" engineers; that

[7] Table 6 presents the absolute figures for all reports received without adjustment. It deals with the older and younger engineers separately and, therefore, no adjustment was required in these broad age classifications, though allowance did have to be made for the relatively large number of reports received from young engineers when the groups were treated in combination.

Older engineers comprise all those who were active in professional engineering prior to 1930. The younger engineers are those who entered the profession in the years 1930–34, inclusive, and are divided into 2 broad-age groups, each designated by the graduating classes which they embrace, namely, 1930–32 engineers and 1933–34 engineers. Furthermore, in tabulating the data on employment status, homogeneity of the older and 1930–32 engineers was maintained. That is, in the case of the former, only those reporting for the 3 years 1929, 1932, and 1934 were used; in the case of the latter, only those reporting for the 2 years 1932 and 1934 were included. Analysis shows that the percentage eliminated was small.

is, of engineers who had entered the profession prior to 1930. In other words, out of every 1,000 engineers reporting, there were net changes in the employment status of 168 between 1929 and 1934. In absolute numbers, there were shrinkages of 5,255 jobs for engineers graduating prior to 1929. No less than 5,002 were separated from private firms. The remaining net losses of employment were distributed among those engaged in independent consulting (60), in teaching (16), and in municipal and other public employment (177). These decreases in employment opportunities for older engineers were not counterbalanced by increases in the other classes of engineering employment. In fact, 2,270 engineers reporting graduation prior to 1930 were still unemployed in December 1934, while 1,233 found employment in nonengineering work. Only 1,752 had been absorbed by increases in public engineering employment, one-sixth with State and county authorities, and five-sixths, or 1,502, with the Federal Government.

The major part of the loss of employment for older engineers occurred from 1929 to 1932. In this period net shifts in employment had affected the status of 14.7 percent of these men. The net change in the period 1932–34 involved only 4.0 percent of them. Obviously, by December 1932 the engineering profession had suffered the major impact of the depression. Between December 1929 and December 1932 there were net losses of employment involving 4,608 engineers. Only two of the categories of employment were involved, namely, that with private firms, and that with municipal and other public authorities. But of the 4,608 positions concerned, the shrinkage of employment with private firms affected 4,530; the latter, only 78. Of these engineers, only 884 were able to find other types of engineering employment by December 1932; nearly 50 percent of them entered Federal Government employment, while a third entered State and county employment. There were 156 additional engineers reporting themselves as being independent consultants and 60 as engaged in teaching. Of the remaining 3,724 engineers, 2,646 were unemployed and 1,078 were engaged in work of a nonengineering nature.

The shifts noted in the period 1929–32 are, therefore, indicative of two trends affecting engineers who had been in the profession in 1929: (1) The pronounced increase in Federal employment and the decrease in private employment; and (2) the comparative stability of the remaining classes of engineering employment. These trends are further accentuated by a consideration of the shifts which occurred between December 1932 and December 1934.

In 1932–34, all categories of engineering employment, with the exception of that with Federal Government, decreased. Thus, an additional net total of 472 engineers graduating before 1930 were sepa-

rated from private firms. The decreases in jobs in the remaining engineering classes ranged from 2 in the case of teaching to 216 for independent consultants. Incidentally, it will be noted that the proportion engaged in the latter class was only slightly less than the proportion so engaged in 1929. This would seem to indicate that the increase which did take place by December 1932 was an artificial one. Altogether, the decreases in engineering employment affected 865 engineers. Despite these decreases in many types of job opportunity, there was also a decrease of 376 in the number of engineers reporting unemployment. Only 155 found opportunities in nonengineering employment. The Federal Government gave engineering employment to the remaining 1,086 (87.5 percent) of those whose status shifted from 1932 to 1934.

The net result of the changes in employment status among the older engineers was such that by December 1934 only 46.2 percent were in the employ of private firms, whereas 62.2 percent had been so engaged at the end of 1929. Federal employment provided for 10.1 percent in December 1934, as against only 5.3 percent in 1929. All other classes of engineering employment remained comparatively stable over the period 1930–34, especially if State, county, and municipal employment are considered together. In December 1934 there were 8.0 percent unemployed, but it is obvious that had not 10.2 percent of the older engineers found work of a nonengineering nature, the proportion unemployed would have been larger by that amount. It is also obvious that by December 1934 it was primarily the increased engineering employment by the Federal Government that ameliorated employment conditions for these older engineers.

Among the engineers who entered the profession during the depression, certain outstanding shifts may be noted. In the first place employment opportunities increased from the end of 1932 to the end of 1934 among those who graduated in 1930–32. Slightly more than half of the 16.6 percent of this group who had been unemployed or on work relief in 1932 found employment by 1934. Furthermore, they had found nonrelief engineering employment. There was no change in the proportion engaged in nonengineering work. The gain was almost equally divided between private employment and public employment. Fewer engineers were teaching or engaged in consulting work. The increase in employment by private firms, however, absorbed 5.3 percent of all engineers in these classes. Similarly, there was a slight decline in the proportions employed by States and counties, but this was much more than offset by an expansion of Federal engineering employment that absorbed an additional 5.0 percent of the total number.

A comparison of the distributions of employment of 1933–34 graduates in 1934 may be made with employment in 1932 of those grad-

uating in 1930–32 to show how conditions had changed as regards the most recent graduates. This comparison is not perfect because in the one case 3 graduating classes are considered and in the other only 2. From 1932 to 1934 there was almost no change in the proportions of the most recent graduates who found engineering employment. Unemployment was slightly lower, primarily because 3.1 percent more 1933–34 graduates were in nonengineering work in 1934 than had been true of 1930–32 graduates in 1932.

While recent graduates in 1934 had as much opportunity for engineering employment as a comparable group had had in 1932, this was because of an expansion in private employment and particularly employment with private firms. Of the 1933–34 graduates, 4.9 percent more were employed by private firms and 1.8 percent fewer were in teaching or acting as independent consultants than had been the case in 1932 among 1930–32 graduates.

The total opportunities for public employment were less in 1934 among the most recent graduates than had been true of a similar group in 1932. The Federal Government did employ 1.6 percent more of them in 1934, but this could not offset the decline of employment opportunities with State, county, and municipal authorities from 12.5 percent of the 1930-32 graduates in 1932 to 7.4 percent of the 1933–34 graduates in 1934.

The preceding discussion has shown the barriers that the depression threw in the way of newcomers to the profession. It now remains to examine the effect that even the partial absorption of the newcomers had upon the employment opportunities of the older engineers.

This interrelationship is best studied in two different phases of the employment cycle: (1) During a period of an absolute contraction in job opportunities, and (2) during a period of expansion. These conditions are represented respectively by the two periods 1929–32 and 1932–34. In the first, it will be recalled that total engineering employment for the adjusted sample decreased from 29,051 to 27,787. In the second period, it grew to 30,299 by the end of 1934. The adjusted data are presented in table 7.

By December 1932 employment with private firms had declined by 15.5 percent. The loss of employment by private firms among older engineers was even greater than this. In absolute numbers, 4,530 were put out of work. Despite the enormous drop, even at this period of the depression no less than 1,522 of those engineers who entered the profession in the period 1930–32 found opportunities for engineering employment with private companies. Thus, approximately two-thirds of the loss of employment among older engineers was due to a decrease in the amount of private employment available. One-third was due to the fact that older engineers were unable or unwilling to take employment which newcomers to the profession secured.

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Table 7.—Increases or Decreases in Employment of Older Engineers and Younger Engineers, by Class of Employment, 1929 to 1934

[Figures adjusted as explained on page 861.]

Employment class	Total number reporting			Increase or decrease			
				1929 to 1932		1932 to 1934	
	1929	1932	1934	Older [1] engineers	New [2] entrants	Older [1] engineers	New [3] entrants
All classes	27,988	28,694	32,735	−2,862	+3,568	+668	+3,373
Private firm	19,424	16,416	17,534	−4,530	+1,522	−472	+1,590
State, county, and municipal government and other public authority	4,948	5,677	5,804	+174	+555	−101	+228
Federal Government	1,647	2,312	3,872	+416	+249	+1,086	+474
Nonengineering	1,969	4,289	5,525	+1,078	+1,242	+155	+1,081

[1] Includes all engineers who were professionally active prior to 1930.
[2] Includes all engineers who entered the profession in the years 1930–32.
[3] Includes all engineers who entered the profession in the years 1933 and 1934, and also came in during this period from classes of 1930–32.

By the end of the second period, private firm employment increased by 1,118, or 6.8 percent, over that reported for December 1932. Here again there was a repetition of the condition noted for the period 1929–32. Even in this period there was a reduction in employment with private companies, affecting 472 of the older engineers. In passing, it should be noted that this decrease did not affect those who entered the profession from 1925 to 1929, but was confined to those who graduated prior to 1925. Essentially, therefore, those who entered the profession in the years 1930–34 secured all the net new employment that developed with private firms and also continued to find some openings at the expense of older engineers. Over the entire 5-year period 1930–34, although 5,002 older engineers suffered loss of employment with private firms, no less than 3,112 of the new entrants found engineering work.

A considerable number of the younger engineers were able to enter engineering activity with private firms, apparently at the expense of the older engineers. But this was probably not the result of a direct displacement on a particular job of any one group of older by younger engineers. The explanation is to be found in the relative ease with which a younger engineer found a new job as compared with an older one who had lost a job. The older engineer inevitably had a greater concern with the suitability of the employment and remuneration offered than had the man without an established position. Furthermore, the enormous influx of new entrants to the profession caused keen competition for all kinds of engineering employment, which, under the then prevailing conditions, were very definitely not of the type to suit the older engineers and which further depressed salary rates for the more elementary types of work.

The changes effected by the depression upon the engineers in the employ of State and county, and municipal and other public authorities, are in striking contrast to those which occurred among older engineers in private firms. Between 1929 and 1932 there was a 14.7 percent increase over the total of 4,948 who were engaged by State and county and municipal and other public authorities in 1929. The increase was shared by both the older engineers and new entrants. The number of the former increased by 174, the latter by 555. By December 1934 the total so employed had increased to 5,804. But in this second period only the new entrants increased—by 228—whereas the older engineers decreased by 101, a net change in favor of the younger engineers of 127. It will, however, be noted that 73 of the net number of older engineers who entered these fields of employment by December 1932 were retained.

Clearly, the older engineers in the employ of these particular public authorities held on tenaciously to their jobs during the depression. The most marked shift as regards this type of employment was the decrease in the proportion of younger engineers who found work with such authorities. The decrease in the number of older engineers so employed by December 1934 may not have been due wholly to the increase of new entrants. Many of the older engineers may have found this employment an easier passage to Federal employment, which, in the period 1932–34, required a large number of engineers as administrators and supervisors for the work-relief programs then under way. These positions may have been more in keeping with the older engineers' previous training and experience.

This last statement is substantiated by the changes which occurred in Federal employment. In both periods the absolute number of older engineers who found this kind of work was greater than that for the younger engineers. Thus, by the end of December 1932, Federal employment increased by 40.0 percent from 1,647 to 2,312. This increase covered 665 engineers, which comprised 62.5 percent older and only 37.5 percent younger engineers. In the second period, the total number in the employ of the Federal Government increased from 2,312 to 3,872, an increase over 1932 of 68.0 percent. The absolute increase was divided in the ratio of 70.0 percent of the older to 30.0 percent of the younger engineers. Over the 5-year period, the respective total absolute increases were 1,502 and 723. It will also be noted that, while in the period 1929–32 the rate of increase of older to younger engineers was two to one, it increased to two and one-half times for the older by the end of December 1934. From this marked preference for older engineers in Federal Government employment, it can only be assumed that the nature of the work did more closely meet their criteria for reemployment, at least for such opportunities as were available.

Over the 5-year period the younger engineers also had a decided advantage in securing nonengineering employment. Thus, while 1,233 older engineers were so engaged, 2,323 of the younger were able to find work of a nonengineering nature. This is made clear from an analysis by age groups of the relative increase in the number of those engaged in nonengineering to the total number displaced from engineering. The ratio of those who secured nonengineering work decreased progressively with age. Thus, 15 percent of the displaced engineers who were over 52 years old in 1934 secured nonengineering work. The remainder were unemployed. Among those who were 28 to 32 years of age, 52 percent secured nonengineering employment. But even the ratio of 52 for engineers entering the profession in 1925–29 was very much less than for the 1930–32 and the 1933–34 engineers. In the case of the former this was 78 and for the latter 69.

This analysis indicates that, taking all factors into consideration, between 1930 and 1934 there was a substantial net loss of employment by the engineers active before 1930, and a considerable absorption in employment of newcomers to the profession. Some of this shift may have been due to direct displacement; some of it to the securing of newly created positions by the younger men. There is no evidence bearing on the proportions affected by these two tendencies.

SOCIAL SECURITY

Establishment of Retirement and Pension Benefits for Industrial Workers in Brazil [1]

A COMPULSORY insurance scheme providing invalidity, sickness, and survivors' benefits for industrial workers in Brazil was established by a law of December 31, 1936. In addition to the benefits named, the regulations of this law may add medical, surgical, and hospital assistance, maternity aid, and cash funeral benefits, financed with or without additional contributions. The effective date of the law is to be determined by the regulations.

Coverage.—Membership in the Industrial Workers' Retirement and Pension Institute is compulsory for all persons whose work under any form of remuneration is directly associated with manufacturing, production, or transformation of utilities in establishments where this is the only or the predominating activity; for employees of professional associations of industrial employers and workers; and for the employees of the Institute. In the beginning, all persons who come under these terms are required to become members, but after the Institute begins to function, only persons from 14 to 50 years of age who have proved by a medical examination that they are not in a precarious state of health may become members. Industrial employers may become members if they meet the age and health requirements just stated.

Financial resources.—The funds of the Institute are to be provided by equal contributions of workers, employers, and the State; contributions from retired persons; interest on investments; gifts and legacies; and unclaimed benefits. Active members are to contribute at a rate varying between 3 and 8 percent of their monthly pay (temporarily fixed at 5 percent) up to 2 contos, and retired members are to pay the same percent of their retirement benefits. Employers' contributions are to equal the total monthly contributions of all their employees, and with them the workers' contributions deducted at pay time are to be paid into the Institute. The Government contribution is to be raised by a "social-welfare tax" of 2 percent of the value of all imports except fuel and wheat, supplemented, when necessary, by a direct appropriation.

[1] Data are from report of R. M. Scotten, American chargé d'affaires ad interim at Rio de Janeiro, Jan. 16, 1937.

Funds are to be invested in well-secured bonds or other securities so as to assure regularity of income. The investment of these funds is to conform to social interests and especially to those of the members, 50 percent being invested in the place of origin of the resources, including such services as loans for specified purposes to members and to enterprises employing them.

Benefits.—Retirement for invalidity is to be granted to members who, after 18 months of contributions, are found to be totally incapacitated for work or to have had their normal working capacity reduced by more than two-thirds for more than a year. Financial aid in case of sickness, other than that covered by workmen's compensation, is given to members who have paid 12 or more monthly contributions, after 30 days have elapsed from the time they ceased work, and continuing up to 1 year. Pensions to beneficiaries of active or retired members who die after having made 18 or more contributions are due in the following order: (1) The widow, the invalid widower, legitimate or illegitimate minor or invalid children; (2) invalid father or mother; (3) minor or invalid brothers and sisters; and (4) other beneficiaries. Amounts of benefits are to be established in the regulations to be issued. The right to claim retirement benefit expires 1 year after withdrawal from the industrial establishment and to claim pension 5 years after the death of the member.

Administration.—The Institute is to function under the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, through the National Labor Council. It is to be administered by a president (appointed by the President of the Republic), assisted by a supervisory council of four members serving for a term of 3 years, two each elected by the syndicates of employers and of workers. Thirty days after the publication of this law the Executive Authority is to appoint a technical committee composed of a president and two members whose duty it is to organize the Institute and to take a census of industrial workers throughout the country. Its work is to be accomplished in 6 months. Within 8 months from the publication of this law the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce is to issue the regulations based on the draft regulations formulated by the technical committee. All employees of the Institute except those holding positions of confidence are to be chosen by competitive tests of ability, and after 2 years of probationary service may not be dismissed except for serious fault established by investigation. Provision is made for appeals in certain cases from decisions of the Institute, and fines are prescribed for violation of the law.

Decisions of British Privy Council on Recent Canadian Social Legislation

ON January 28, 1937, the Judicial Committee of the British Privy Council delivered judgments on the constitutionality of eight recent acts of the Canadian Parliament, most of which dealt with matters of serious concern to labor. These decisions had been appealed for final determination from the Supreme Court of Canada to the Privy Council of Great Britain, with the result that the following statutes were all pronounced invalid: The Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings Act, 1935; the Minimum Wages Act, 1935; the Limitation of Hours of Work Act, 1935; the Employment and Social Insurance Act, 1935; the Natural Products Marketing Act, 1934; and the Natural Products Marketing Act Amendment Act, 1935.

The following measures were declared by the Privy Council to be within the legislative competence of the Dominion Parliament: The Farmers' Creditors Arrangement Act, 1934, and the Farmers' Creditors Arrangement Act Amendment Act; the Dominion Trade and Industry Commission Act and section 498–A of the Criminal Code.

A brief summary of the decisions of the Privy Council, from the Canadian Labor Gazette of February 1937, is given below.

The Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings Act, 1935, the Minimum Wages Act, 1935, and the Limitations of Hours Act, 1935, were based on international labor conventions. In considering these statutes, the Judicial Committee of the Council made a distinction "between the formation and the performance of obligations constituted by a treaty. The National Government may decide to incur obligations of a treaty which require changes in the law, but such changes can be made only by a legislative body with power under the B. N. A. [British North America] Act to legislate on the subject matter of the treaty."

Their Lordships held that section 132 of the B. N. A. Act did not apply to the case since the obligations incurred by the Dominion Government in ratifying the conventions "are not obligations of Canada as part of the British Empire." Section 132 gives to the Parliament and Government of Canada "all powers necessary or proper for performing the obligations of Canada or of any province thereof, as part of the British Empire, towards foreign countries, arising under treaties between the Empire and such foreign countries."

The only question at issue, then, concerned the competent legislative authority on the subject of wages, hours, and a weekly rest day. Since these matters are "within the class assigned exclusively to the Provinces under the head 'property and civil rights in the Province', the competent legislative authorities were the provincial legislatures."

Three members of the Supreme Court of Canada, including the chief justice, had upheld the constitutionality of these statutes and the other three had ruled that they were not valid.

The Employment and Social Insurance Act, 1935, provided for the setting up of a contributory system of unemployment insurance, a national employment service, and other kinds of social insurance. The statute was found by the Privy Council to be beyond the competence of the Dominion Parliament, the Council declaring, in agreement with the majority opinion of the Supreme Court of Canada that "in pith and substance this act is an insurance act affecting the civil rights of employers and employees in each Province, and as such is invalid."

The Natural Products Marketing Act, 1934, and the amending measure of 1935, making provision for the establishment of a Dominion Marketing Board with extensive powers of control and regulation, was also declared unconstitutional by the Judicial Committee. This judgment sustained a similar and unanimous decision of the Canadian Supreme Court.

The Farmers' Creditors Arrangement Act, 1934, and the amending act of 1935, to provide for an arrangement to settle farmers' debts under a board, were pronounced within the competence of the Dominion Parliament by the Supreme Court and were also ruled constitutional by the Privy Council.

Sections 18 and 19 of the Dominion Trade and Industry Commission Act, 1935, which provide for a "Canada Standard" trade mark, were held constitutionally valid by the Privy Council, although these sections had been judged by the Supreme Court to exceed the legislative powers of the Dominion Parliament.

Section 498A of the Criminal Code, which was enacted in 1935, "made it an indictable offense to discriminate in price in certain ways between purchasers of goods, or to engage in a policy of selling goods at unreasonably low prices for the purpose of destroying competition or of eliminating a competitor." The provision was declared by the Privy Council to be within the competence of the Dominion Parliament, which judgment sustained the majority decision of the Supreme Court of Canada on this section.

Japanese Act Providing for Employment-Separation Allowances [1]

ON January 1, 1937, an act became effective which makes compulsory the already quite common practice among employers in Japan of granting allowances to workers leaving their employment. Previous to the promulgation of this act there was no assurance that retirement allowances would be paid, as business organizations were

[1] Data are from report of Edwin L. Neville, chargé d'affaires ad interim at Tokyo, Sept. 3, 1936, enclosing a copy of the act in English; and International Labor Review (Geneva), December 1936, pp. 719–732, The New Japanese Act on Retirement Allowances, by J. Kitaoka.

not obliged to set aside reserve funds for these grants, and a firm could go into bankruptcy without paying such benefits to its employees.

According to an investigation made in 1935 by the Japanese Bureau of Social Affairs, the total number of factories and mines (exclusive of State establishments) which employed 50 or more workers, where written regulations regarding leaving allowances had been adopted, was 1,582 (1,446 factories and 136 mines), employing 737,992 workers. These establishments constituted one-fourth of those employing 50 or more workers and over two-fifths of the total number of workers employed in such concerns. The number of factories and mines, therefore, coming within the scope of the act will be approximately 6,300, and their combined labor force about 1,700,000.

Government undertakings are not included, as they already are covered by a separate system.

The act is not applicable to casual workers hired by the day unless they have been employed more than 60 consecutive days, nor to temporary workers hired for less than 6 months, nor to seasonal workers engaged for less than a year. Salaried and professional employees, also, are not covered by this legislation, although under the voluntary system leaving allowances were more usual among such employees than among wage earners. The employment conditions of these two classes of workers are reported as being too different for the same standard to be imposed by law in both cases.

An official of the Japanese Bureau of Social Affairs points out that as the act covers only factories and mines employing at least 50 workers, the number of wage earners benefited will not be very great (about 1,700,000 as stated above). He also calls attention to the fact that the scale of allowances is not quite as high as that prevailing in many establishments.

It is hoped, however, that the moral effect of the act will be considerable. In particular, it is anticipated that by fixing a legal minimum it will help to raise the general standard of allowances; that it will foster the introduction of similar schemes in small factories and mines and in undertakings of other kinds such as shops, railways, shipping, etc.; and that it will stimulate the existing practice of paying retirement allowances to salaried employees, ultimately rendering this practice a right instead of a favor.[2]

It is customary in Japan to include the major feature of the proposed legislation in the basic act, leaving the details to be covered by imperial or ministerial decree. In the following résumé of the new provisions, some of the details of the Government's scheme in connection with the principal act are also given.

[2] International Labor Review (Geneva), December 1936, p. 732.

Funds and Benefits

PROVISION is made for three types of fund in each establishment covered: A retirement-reserve fund, a retirement-allowance fund, and a dismissal-allowance fund.

(1) *The retirement-reserve fund* for each worker is constituted by the deduction of 2 percent of his wage each pay day. This amount is deposited in the Government Savings Bank in his name and is returned to him with accrued interest when his employment ceases. The refund of these savings is subject to no restriction, and the workers' creditors have no claim upon them.

(2) *The retirement-allowance fund* is composed of contributions by the employer, made at least once a year and consisting of a sum equivalent to 2 percent of the total wages paid, plus a supplementary contribution which varies for different concerns. In each case the Government must approve the amount of this additional contribution, which depends upon profits, but may not be more than 3 percent of the wages paid.

While the reserve consisting of the various retirement-allowance funds is the property of the employer, each workers' fund is treated as a separate legal entity or trust deposit, the employer acting as trustee. The money must be deposited in a Government or other approved savings bank, or invested in bonds of the central or local governments, or in debentures of the companies specified in a special act. A separate account must be kept for each worker; the interest on the reserve will be distributed over the separate accounts in proportion to the amount credited to each of them. The use of the reserve by the employer for other purposes than those laid down by the act is prohibited. This reserve is exempt from all taxation, and cannot be attached by the creditors of either employer or worker. The maximum amount of exemption from tax and attachment is 7 percent of wages. This limit is important, as otherwise the employer might be tempted to increase the reserve above the obligatory requirements of the act in order to evade taxation.[3]

The right to a leaving allowance is to be restricted by decree. The general scheme as set forth by the Japanese Bureau of Social Affairs is as follows:

The employer is not obliged to pay any allowance in case a worker is discharged for a serious fault, or when a worker whose period of service is less than 3 years voluntarily leaves his employment without "due cause."

The employer is permitted to cut down the allowance to one-third when a worker whose period of service is 3 years or over voluntarily leaves his employment without "due cause."

The term "due cause" is to be defined later. It is now understood that a worker leaving because of marriage or illness, has "due cause."

At any time the worker may appeal to a committee created for the purpose, upon which the workers have representation. He may also resort to court procedure.

[3] International Labor Review (Geneva), December 1936, p. 729.

(3) *The dismissal-allowances fund* consists of the unexpended balances of retirement-allowances funds. When all or a part of the retirement-allowance fund accumulated in behalf of any worker is for some proper reason withheld, this amount is transferred to the dismissal-allowance fund, made up of such unexpended balances, from which an additional allowance is paid to a worker dismissed for reasons concerning the operation of the establishment and without fault on the worker's part. "This allowance is to be 20 days' wages when the period of service in the establishment is more than 1 and less than 3 years, and 35 days' wages when it is 3 years or more."

If the amount in the dismissal fund is not sufficient to cover the requirements when more workers than one are dismissed at the same time, the workers will share the available sum in accordance with their respective claims. If there are no reserves, dismissal allowances may be withheld.

Exceptions and Alternatives

THE act authorizes exceptions and alternatives. Thus, in cases in which employers have already adopted measures to insure the payment of leaving allowances, it is provided that such arrangements may be considered equivalent to the requirements under the law if the proper authority is satisfied that the existing plan protects the workers better than the legal provisions or if it is decided that the legal provisions are not practicable.

Another exception is the exemption of an employer from the obligation to set up the funds described in the preceding section, if he adopts regulations which provide for the following minimum scale of allowances:

(*a*) A retirement allowance equivalent to 12 days' wages for each year of service. The "wage" will be the standard remuneration as computed for purposes of health insurance at the time of leaving. If the worker leaves on his own initiative or is discharged through his own fault, the same reductions are permitted as in the general plan.

(*b*) Supplementary to the above benefit, a special dismissal allowance equal to 20 days' wages when the worker's service has been more than 1 or less than 3 years, and to 35 days' wages for a service period of 3 years or more. In both cases the employer is obligated for the whole amount without the limitations provided in the general plan.

An adequate reserve fund must be set up for both types of allowances.

A comparison of the general scheme and the alternative scheme shows that the charge to the employer under the former is from 2 to 5 percent of wages, while under the latter it is 3⅓ percent of wages (less in the case of workers leaving on their own initiative or dismissed for their own fault, so that the allowance may be withheld) plus the cost of the special dismissal allowances.[4]

[4] International Labor Review (Geneva), December 1936, p. 731.

Penalties and Appeals

IMPRISONMENT is prescribed as the penalty for any illegal use of the reserve fund and a fine for any other violation of the law.

Provision is made for the establishment of a local committee in each prefecture to supervise the allowance funds and of a central committee at the Bureau of Social Affairs. These committees will include workers' and employers' representatives and officials, the exact membership and method of appointment to be regulated by decree. Any worker who is not satisfied in regard to the payment of allowances can first make complaint to the local committee, then to the central committee, and finally to the courts.

A special supervisory officer is also to be appointed.

PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Employment and Productivity in Bituminous-Coal Mining, 1935–36

SLIGHT increases in employment, productivity, and mechanization characterized the bituminous-coal industry in 1935, as shown in the bituminous-coal tables published by the Coal Economics Division of the United States Bureau of Mines.[1] In addition to the data for 1935, this compilation includes certain preliminary figures for 1936 that indicate more rapid expansion in the industry than occurred in the 2 years of recovery, 1934 and 1935. While production increased by 13 million tons (3.6 percent) between 1934 and 1935, a far greater extension of operations occurred in 1936, when the total production was 434,070,000 tons—that is, 61,697,000 tons (16.6 percent) in excess of the total in 1935. A marked increase in mechanization is also reflected in the preliminary figures for 1936. For example, reports of 28 manufacturers on sales of mechanical loading devices show that whereas 344 machines of the mobile type were sold in 1936, only 115 were sold in the previous year. Stripping doubtless increased also, since six new open-mine operations were begun or completed during the year 1936, and in Illinois alone the tonnage so mined increased 21.3 percent as compared with 13.0 percent for shaft mines. Mechanical cleaning plants were increased by 36 installations during the year. Information so far available also points to a slight increase in volume of employment in 1936 as compared with 1935. In the latter year the average number of men employed was 462,403. On the basis of an estimated total of 467,000 men employed in 1936 the average will be some 36,000 below the average for 1929, but unemployment among miners is stated as "probably greater * * * as even in 1929 there were considerable numbers of bituminous miners entirely out of a job."

The following table shows the more important series of statistics for the coal-mining industry in 1913, 1934, and 1935.

[1] U. S. Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Coal Economics Division. Bituminous Coal Tables, 1935–36. By F. G. Tryon, L. Mann, W. H. Young, and R. McKinney. Washington, 1937.

Salient Statistics of Bituminous-Coal Industry, 1913, 1934, and 1935

Item	1913	1934	1935
Total production—net tons	478,435,297	359,368,022	372,373,122
Total number of mines (over 1,000 net tons)	5,776	[1] 6,258	[1] 6,315
Percent of output from mines producing 100,000 net tons and over	75.4	80.5	80.7
Average number of men employed	571,882	458,011	462,403
Underground	494,238	384,947	389,942
Surface	77,644	73,064	72,461
Average number of days of mine operation	232	178	179
Nominal length of full-time week [2]—hours	51.6	40.0 and 35.1	35.1
Output per man per day—net tons	3.61	4.40	4.50
Output per man per year—do	837	785	805
Percent of underground output cut by machine	50.7	84.1	84.2
Percent of underground output mechanically loaded		12.2	13.5
Quantity mined by stripping—net tons	[3] 1,280,946	20,789,641	23,647,292
Quantity cleaned by wet or pneumatic processes [4] net tons	22,069,691	35,853,714	39,511,176

[1] The increase in 1934 and 1935 over preceding years is largely due to more complete coverage of small trucking mines made possible by cooperation of the N. R. A.
[2] As reported by the operator; not hours actually worked by men.
[3] Figure for 1914, the year of earliest record.
[4] Exclusive of central washeries operated by consumers.

Changes between 1934 and 1935 are in no instance particularly striking. It is noted, however, that the slight increase in average number of men employed is accounted for by the increase in the number of men employed underground, more than compensating for the small reduction in the number of surface workers from 73,064 men in 1934 to 72,461 men the following year. Output per man per day increased by one-tenth of a ton. The annual output per man increased by 20 tons, owing to the fractionally higher daily output and the fact that mines operated 179 days in 1935 as compared with 178 in 1934.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS

Program of the International Labor Conference of June 1937

By Carter Goodrich, United States Labor Commissioner, Geneva, Switzerland

EACH year the work of the International Labor Organization reaches its point of culmination and major decision at the International Labor Conference. When the twenty-third session opens in June 1937, however, it will come at the end of 12 months of quite unusual activity in the Organization. Last October there were held the special maritime sessions of the Conference, which adopted the important labor treaties described in the February 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.[1] In November, there was a technical conference on the printing industry, and in December one on chemicals.[2] An important part of the year's work will take place under American eyes in the Textile Conference at Washington in the early part of April 1937, which has attracted an unusual amount of attention throughout the textile world. Yet even these events cannot overshadow the June Conference, for which, indeed, the meetings on printing and chemicals, and even in part that on textiles, were planned as direct preparation. If the extent of participation is taken as a measure of importance, 33 nations attended the maritime sessions but no less than 49 were represented at the annual Conference in June 1936, and a similar attendance may be expected in 1937.

The United States representatives at the June Conference will be fortified by the experience of two previous delegations that have taken part in these annual meetings.[3] It will be recalled that the composition of the Conference reflects the essentially tripartite character of the I. L. O. as an organization not merely of governments, but of employers and trade-unions as well. Each member nation is entitled to send two government delegates, one employers' delegate, and one

[1] Monthly Labor Review, February 1937 (pp. 349–355).

[2] Idem, January 1937 (pp. 77–78).

[3] For a previous description of the organization and procedure of the Conference, see Monthly Labor Review, April 1936 (pp. 953–968).

workers' delegate; and these in turn may be accompanied by technical advisers to share the work of a crowded and diversified agenda.

As in other years, the delegates to the Conference will doubtless discuss at length the annual report of the Director of the International Labor Office. In this document, which is circulated well in advance, one section typically reviews the year's activities of the staff and another is likely to contain a penetrating analysis of changing economic and social conditions throughout the world. The Director often uses the opportunity of this "report on the state of the nation"—or rather of the nations—to point to what he considers the strategic directions for the work of the Organization. The delegates will also consider a number of resolutions which will come to the floor of the Conference after consideration by a resolutions committee. Often these discussions point the way for significant future activity. Another task of the Conference is the critical review of the Organization's past accomplishments, and one of its most important committees studies the reports submitted by the various governments on the way in which they are carrying out the obligations they have assumed under the conventions, or labor treaties, which they have previously bound themselves to apply.

This year the Conference has to perform another important function which has not been exercised since the United States became a member of the Organization—that of determining the composition for the next 3 years of the Governing Body, or administrative council, of the Office, which supervises the work of the permanent staff and decides the agenda for the sessions of the Conference. In this election, the United States Government has no direct concern; as one of the "eight States of chief industrial importance", its own seat is permanent and unquestioned. But the other governments outside this small group must choose from among their number eight States to occupy the seats of elected representatives. At the same time the workers' delegates and the employers' delegates each choose 8 individuals to represent their interests and to fill out the Governing Body's membership of 32. At present both American workers and American employers are included in this number, the places being held by William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, and Henry S. Dennison of the Dennison Manufacturing Co., with Henry I. Harriman, formerly president of the United States Chamber of Commerce, as his alternate.

Toward Labor Treaties

THIS year, as always, the main function of the Conference and its chief interest lie in the decisions which it will make on the proposed conventions or labor treaties. These subjects appear on the agenda as the results of a long process of preparation and on the basis of decisions

made either by the Conferences of previous years or by the Governing Body. Thus, the last detail of the June 1937 agenda was settled by the Governing Body in November 1936, and the February 1937 meeting of the same organization has already determined the major items of the 1938 agenda. This makes it possible for the Office to give full notice to the governments concerned and to consult them well in advance. On the basis of their replies and of its own researches, the Office furnishes to the delegates an elaborate documentation on each of the points at issue, and in most cases the draft of a possible convention. When the Conference meets, a tripartite committee is set up to deal with each of the proposals, and each draft convention is subjected to an extended process of examination, discussion, and amendment before it can reach the floor of the full Conference for final decision. At this last stage the proposed convention must receive two-thirds of the votes cast before it is adopted and referred to the governments for ratification.

For the 1937 session the subjects are as follows: For partial revision, the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, and the Minimum Age (Nonindustrial Employment) Convention; for second (normally final) discussion, the questions of reduction of hours of work in the textile industry and safety provisions for workers in the building industry; for first or single discussion, the subjects of reduction of hours of work in the printing and kindred trades, reduction of hours of work in the chemical industry, and planning of public works in relation to employment.

Revision of Child Labor Conventions

With the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, the Organization returns to a field of significant former activity. Conventions setting 14 years as the standard minimum age of entrance into employment were adopted for industry in 1919, for maritime employment in 1920, for agriculture in 1921, and for other branches of nonindustrial employment (primarily commerce) in 1932. These have been ratified in 27, 32, 20, and 6 countries, respectively; and the larger of these figures include most of the industrially important nations of the world. In many cases these ratifications necessitated concurrent national legislation to raise to 14 the minimum age of employment.

As yet few nations have enforced a higher standard, but after this long experience many people within the Organization feel that the time is ripe to attempt a further advance and to raise the minimum from 14 to 15 years. Both at Geneva and at the I. L. O. Regional Conference at Santiago, representatives of the United States took an active part in urging this change. Last October the maritime session of the Conference agreed to raise the standard in this way in the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, but made the step contingent on

similar action in the 1937 Conference with respect to the industrial and nonindustrial conventions. Thus the decision in June assumes added importance.

In addition to the major question of the raising of the age of employment, the delegates will have to consider revising the exceptions permitted in the earlier conventions, including certain provisions intended to meet the special circumstances of oriental countries. At the insistence of the United States representative, the Governing Body also placed on the agenda the question of the inclusion in the Industrial Convention of a provision for a higher minimum for occupations "dangerous to life, health, or morals" similar to that already contained in the Nonindustrial Convention; and also the question of the revision in the Industrial Convention, and the inclusion in the Nonindustrial Convention, of an important enforcement provision requiring the employer to keep a register of young persons above the prohibited ages. It is probable, however, that a greater controversy will arise over the proposal to qualify the new convention by inserting the following article:

> Provided that national laws or regulations may provide for the issue in respect of children of not less than 14 years of age of certificates permitting them to be employed in cases in which an educational or other appropriate authority designated by such laws or regulations is satisfied, after having due regard to the health and physical condition of the child and to the prospective as well as to the immediate benefit to the child of the employment proposed, that such employment will be beneficial to the child.

This provision corresponds to the present legislation in Great Britain and was inserted in the maritime convention last autumn at the request of the British Government representative and over the opposition of the United States member of the committee. It will be for the delegates to consider whether this represents a sensible and necessary measure of flexibility or a dangerous loophole in the armor of regulation. Moreover, the replies of governments to the Office questionnaire indicate that the raising of the minimum age on any terms is by no means a foregone conclusion, and that it will require vigorous effort on the part of the friends of child protection to secure a revision that marks a real advance.

Safety Provisions for Workers in the Building Industry

UNDER the practice most commonly adopted by the Organization, a proposal for a convention is considered by the Conferences of 2 successive years, and it is under this "double discussion" procedure that the subject of safety in the building industry comes before the 1937 Conference. The question was debated in last year's session and the proposals were carefully worked over by a tripartite committee which drew up a detailed questionnaire for circulation to

governments. Their replies have since been received, and now the issue comes before the 1937 Conference for a final vote.

In accordance with a characteristic research method of the Organization, the specific proposals under consideration were drawn up in consultation with the Office by a correspondence committee on the prevention of accidents, composed of experts chosen from a large number of countries. This group drafted a "model safety code" including some 18 pages of specifications devoted principally to the prevention of the numerous accidents that result from faulty scaffolding and imperfect hoisting machinery. The delegates therefore will have to judge the merits of these or similar provisions for the prevention of accidents, and they have been particularly asked to consider how many of them are sufficiently universal in application to be appropriate for adoption in a convention. On this point perhaps the most probable solution is that favored by the United States Government, under which the more general principles embodied in the code will be adopted as a convention and the remaining more detailed provisions will be commended to the attention of governments by a nonbinding recommendation.

The 40-Hour Week

THE most controversial items on the agenda are those involving the question of the 40-hour week. The first convention adopted by the International Labor Organization, at its initial Conference in 1919, set 48 hours as the standard maximum working week in industry. This has received 18 ratifications, and was supplemented in 1932 by a convention setting the same standard for commerce and offices, which has been put into force by 8 governments. More recently, the workers have returned to the question with the vigorous demand for the still further reduction to 40 hours, for which they have argued both on general social grounds and as a measure for combating unemployment. The issue has given rise to the bitterest and most significant conflicts in the recent history of the Organization. Few governments have given the movement consistent support, except those of France, which has now adopted the 40-hour week in its own national legislation, and the United States. On the other hand, the opposition of the employers has been so bitter that their representatives, with the exception of the American, have often refused to take part in committee meetings and preparatory conferences that were discussing the question.

At the 1934 Conference, conventions providing for the 40-hour week in general industry and in commerce and offices failed of adoption on second discussion, but the subject was put on the agenda for the following year. When it became apparent that rejection was again likely in 1935, the advocates of the measure accepted the compromise

of a "convention of principle", under which the ratifying governments were to express their approval of "the 40-hour week applied in such a manner that the standard of living is not reduced", but were not bound to put it into effect in any particular case. From this point on, the struggle has turned to attempts to secure the actual enforcement of the "principle" through binding conventions referring to specific industries. The 1935 session adopted a 42-hour week—7 shifts of 6 hours each, to allow for continous operation—in the glass-bottle industry, and last year's Conference adopted a convention providing for 40 hours (or again 42 in continuous processes) in public works. In the same session, however, draft conventions covering building, coal mining, and iron and steel, though receiving majority support, failed in each case to secure the two-thirds necessary for final adoption. Thus no step has yet been taken which actually puts the agreed "principle" into operation in any major private industry.

Of the three industries under consideration in June 1937, that of textiles comes on for the second discussion in the double-discussion procedure. Last year's Conference voted, by 54 votes to 47, not to decide the question in a single discussion, but agreed, by 71 votes to 29, to place the question on the 1937 agenda. The cases of the other two industries are up for first discussion, but were placed on the agenda with the understanding that the Conference, if it so desires, has power to adopt each convention in the single session. In these cases, moreover, a part of the preliminary work has been done in the preparatory technical conferences held in November and December.[4]

Hope that the printing trades might be one of the first fields for the international application of the 40-hour week has been based on the substantial progress already made toward the reduction of hours in the industry. Evidence presented at the preparatory conference indicated that actual hours were 48 or less in a large number of countries, and in at least one important country it is probable that direct negotiations between unions and employers will make the situation more favorable in June than it was in November. But there are few cases outside the United States, New Zealand, France, and Russia in which the working hours in the industry are as low as 40, and instead of the acceptance of a general and immediate reduction to 40 hours it is possible that some sort of compromise will be adopted. Moreover, it was pointed out at the preparatory conference that in this particular industry, the existing standards had been much more often set by collective bargaining than by law, and the suggestion was therefore made that it might be found possible to draft a new type of convention under which direct use could be made of collective agreements as a method of enforcement alternative, or supplementary, to that of legislation.

[4] See Monthly Labor Review, January 1937 (pp. 77, 78).

In the case of chemicals, the United States Government representative at the preparatory conference, Prof. T. J. Kreps, argued that the industry was peculiarly ripe for the international regulation of labor conditions, because of the extent to which both national and international integration had gone on the employers' side. "Wherever employers have already demonstrated that international conventions are possible in trade practice", he said, "they have laid themselves open to the argument that international conventions in regard to labor practice are equally possible." The discussions at this meeting, however, turned on the difficulty of defining the scope of the industry, and developed disagreement as to such significant borderline cases as the production of zinc and aluminum, matches, gas, rubber, and rayon. There was little in the tenor of the December debates, or in the evidence presented on the present state of regulation, to give much hope that the proposed convention will be adopted in a single discussion.

Both the size of the textile industry and its strikingly international character make this case the most important of the three. When it became evident that in spite of strong support a textile convention could not win a two-thirds majority in the 1936 Conference, in the face of an opposition based partly on the argument that too little was known about the economics of the industry, the United States Government delegates, Mr. John G. Winant and Miss Frieda Miller, who had supported the convention, proposed—

> to request the governing body to convene a tripartite conference which would include the necessary technical and expert assistance from textile-producing countries. It would be the purpose of this conference to consider how the work already undertaken by the International Labor Organization in connection with the improvement of conditions in the textile industry can best be advanced and to take into account all those aspects of the textile industry, which, directly or indirectly, may have a bearing on the improvement of social conditions in that industry.

Their resolution was carried, and in November the Governing Body repeated its concluding phrases in summoning the Textile Conference. Thus, the terms of reference of the body meeting in Washington in April 1937 are much broader than the 40-hour week. Indeed, as the comprehensive report laid before it by the Office points out, the meeting "represents the first attempt by the International Labor Organization to review the general situation of a world-wide industry, in order to explore the possibility of improving its social standards." [5] It is thus quite possible that its deliberations may lead the way to eventual adoption of labor treaties on questions other than the reduc-

[5] International Labor Office. The World Textile Industry, Geneva, 1936, Vol. I, p. iv. The same report states (p. 6): "This report is in many ways a pioneer effort. Insofar as the Office is aware, no studies dealing with a major world industry in both its economic and social aspects have been made heretofore. This is the first time that an attempt is made to portray a world industry in all its manifestations, in order that a social policy may be elaborated with full understanding of the facts."

tion of hours. There is, however, no doubt that its discussions will have a profound effect upon the decision that must be taken in June upon the specific and significant issue of the hours convention. The opponents of the 40-hour week are doubtless convinced that the discussions will demonstrate conclusively that such a measure is economically impossible. Its advocates, on the other hand, hope that the effect of examining the economics of the industry will be to discover that the supposed obstacles are less formidable than they appeared, or that the measure itself would contribute to its economic stability. And perhaps also they hope that the presence in Washington of the representatives of so large a part of the world's textile industry may lead to agreements and understandings that will make easier the path of labor reform.

Planning of Public Works

AT THE very first session of the International Labor Conference, which was held in Washington in 1919, a recommendation was adopted to the effect that "each member of the International Labor Organization coordinate the execution of all work undertaken under public authority, with a view to reserving such work as far as practicable for periods of unemployment." Now the agenda of the 1937 Conference contains proposals to carry further the idea embodied in this early action.

It is interesting to notice the extent to which these suggestions for I. L. O. action parallel ideas frequently expressed in the United States and embodied in the policy of the present administration. Those who urge I. L. O. action argue that when the public authorities are guided in undertaking public works solely by their financial resources at a given moment, it inevitably happens that expenditure on these works is heaviest in years of economic upswing, and declines in years of depression. When, on the other hand, they point out, the public authorities avoid placing such orders as can be postponed without ill effects at times when private enterprises already have their hands full, they do both employer and worker a service, since they thus help to make the activity of undertakings and the employment of labor more regular. It is this philosophy which underlay President Roosevelt's message to Congress on February 3, 1937, urging "a long-range plan and policy for construction", and submitting "recommendations on the timing of public works" and "a 6-year program based on selection and priority of public works" prepared by the National Resources Committee. The experts of the Office also point to the necessity of the coordination of planning of public works in a single national agency, and this too has been recommended by the President and is included in the proposals of the President's Committee on Administrative Management. Again, the Labor Office calls attention

to the importance of bringing within the scheme the large body of work performed by local authorities, and, similarly, the National Resources Committee urges that States and municipalities, as well as the national Government, should plan their activities on a 6-year basis.

With these common elements of purpose and program, it may be expected that the representatives of the United States will take an active part in furthering action on this subject by the International Labor Conference. The specific proposals are of two sorts. It is suggested that Governments might bind themselves by the means of a convention to collect and exchange information on their respective public-works programs in terms of a uniform coordinated plan, and that they should set up an international committee to review these reports and make suggestions for further international collaboration. Such a program, its sponsors believe, is certain to stimulate nations to plan their public-works programs, and the discussions in the international committee are bound to relate such planning to the range of world-wide economic fluctuations. There are some who believe that this might lead at a later stage to the "joint execution of extensive public works of an international character" or possibly to the joint financing of projects which had been approved by this international board. With respect to the actual conduct and planning of public works within the particular countries, it is probable that no binding convention will be attempted, but that a recommendation will be framed giving advice on such matters as the methods of timing public works, the distinction between relief works and normal public works, and the methods of financing appropriate to periods of upswing and periods of depression.

Thus no drastic action is contemplated, and it is quite possible that even these proposals will not finally be adopted until they have gone through the stage of second discussion in the 1938 Conference. They are, however, of real significance in relation to the general development of I. L. O. policy. Properly and necessarily, the major work of the Organization has been concerned either with the setting of minimum labor standards or with the provision of the necessary palliatives for the victims of such evils as unemployment. But in the broadened discussion of the textile conference, the Organization now attempts to examine the economic circumstances which make difficult the raising of standards, and in the proposals for the advance planning of public works the Organization attempts to make a contribution toward the elimination of unemployment rather than toward the mere alleviation of its effects.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND UNEMPLOYMENT RELIEF

Report of President's Committee on the N. R. A.

MORE jobs, shorter hours, moderate wage gains, moral and economic advantages resulting from the ban on child labor, and public support of the principles of labor organization and collective bargaining constitute the major gains accruing to labor under the N. R. A., according to the findings of the President's Committee of Industrial Analysis.[1] This committee was appointed by authority of an Executive order effective April 1, 1936, to complete the summarization of the achievements of the National Recovery Administration.[2] In fulfilling this task a staff was brought together to undertake an analysis of the accomplishments, in five parts—pre-N. R. A. background, administration and organization, trade-practice experience, experience with labor provisions, and legal studies. The important features of the sections on labor provisions are here reviewed.

The committee concludes that approximately 2 million workers secured employment under the National Industrial Recovery Act. Total employment increased by 2,462,000, or 6.8 percent, from June to October 1933 when the President's Reemployment Agreement was operative. The percent of increase in the industries operating under the agreement is estimated as considerably higher—11.4. Job gains under codes are attributed to the spreading of work rather than to increased industrial activity. Hours, it is stated, were shortened by 12.7 percent. It is believed that the shorter hours were substantially maintained during the subsequent code period, up to the time they became inoperative, but little further reemployment was observable, after the first general extension, that could be attributed to the hours provisions. The report states that shortened hours in some cases led directly to increased man-hour output, a tendency that would reduce the work-spreading effect but also preclude increasing manufacturing costs.

[1] United States. Congress. House of Representatives. Document No. 158 (75th Cong., 1st sess.): The National Recovery Administration; message of the President of the United States transmitting a report on the operation of the National Recovery Administration, which has been prepared by those members of the Committee of Industrial Analysis who have no official relationship to the Government. Washington, 1937.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, May 1936 (p. 1234).

The 40-hour week was the standard in the great majority of the codes. Experience proved that provisions allowing for flexibility, by permitting averaging of hours over given periods of weeks or months, minimized the amount of reemployment possible. Morevoer, this type of provision was extremely difficult to enforce. Where definite tolerances with overtime pay were provided, the situation was found to be somewhat better as regards compliance. Nevertheless, the establishment of a flat maximum did not work undue hardship, for in industries applying this method, variation in hours below the maximum served to stabilize competitive conditions. Experience indicated that seasonality in industries did not constitute proof that tolerances were needed, as in some instances these were the particular industries which operated successfully on fixed-hours schedules.

Total wage distributions increased markedly under the N. R. A., but an indeterminate proportion of this rise was offset by increased prices. While the average wage increase was not large, the report under review states that substantial increases for those with the lowest wages resulted from the minimum rates established by codes. The lowest-paid groups received more, both on an hourly and on a weekly basis. Among the higher-paid groups, some merely maintained their weekly earnings and others actually suffered a decrease. As between industries the greatest proportionate rise in earnings was in those where wages had been lowest, and in this way inequalities were reduced.

Differentials in wages based on geographic area were large or small, depending upon the amount of regional competition and the bargaining power of labor in its efforts to secure uniform rates. Even taking into account the differentials introduced under many codes, the N. R. A. rates agreed upon for most southern plants tended to reduce the previously existing geographic differentials between North and South.

Abuses arising from subminimal rates for special groups, such as learners, became apparent to all groups as code making progressed.

The child labor regulations under the N. R. A., barring young persons of given ages from employment, according as the industries were hazardous or otherwise, are regarded by the committee as one of the major pieces of social progress effected under the law. It is also believed that by establishing age limits below which minors could not be employed, administration of the wages and hours provisions was facilitated, since children were shut off from the possibility of undercutting wages for adults. The prohibition of child labor proved practicable not only as social legislation but also in factory operation.

Fundamentally the provision in section 7 (a) of the National Industrial Recovery Act, dealing with the right of labor to organize for collective bargaining, is stated to have been of greater significance

than wage and hour regulation in its effect on labor relations in American industry. This section "definitely formulated for labor generally what had been no more than an imperfectly expressed part of public policy in the United States."

The N. R. A. found that flexibility and adequate opportunity for public discussion of its experience were prerequisite to success. Where uniformity of minimum labor terms was possible, it was administratively helpful. Voluntary compliance was in the final analysis the crux of success, whether brought about by the pressure of public opinion, or from within the industry, or from organized employee groups.

Operations of Civilian Conservation Corps in 1936

OVER 1,400,000 young men enrolled in the Civilian Conservation Corps from its organization in April 1933 up to the middle of 1936. An increase in the size of the Corps was put into effect at the beginning of the fiscal year 1936, resulting in a peak strength in August of that year of 505,782 enrollees. The age limits were also changed, the maximum being raised from 25 to 28 years and the minimum lowered from 18 to 17 years. The resulting increase in enrollees was much greater in the lower-age groups than in the higher-age groups. Over half of the youths accepted as enrollees during the fall of 1935 and the spring of 1936 were either 17 or 18 years of age and three-quarters of them were under 21 years. On June 30, 1936, there were 321,243 enrollees (the authorized strength at that time being 350,000), according to the 1936 annual report of that organization, from which the data in this article are taken.[1]

Effects Upon Health

THE outdoor life, healthful work, nourishing food, and orderly habits of C. C. C. workers have benefited them physically. In 1936 an average gain of 6.04 pounds at the end of the second month after enrollment was shown by a large representative group. After 3 or 4 months' service an average range of 8 to 14 pounds gain was shown. Disease among the C. C. C. enrollees has been remarkably low, although many of the camps are remote from city water and sewage systems and offer exposure to such epidemic diseases as typhoid fever and malaria.

The chief cause of sickness during the year 1936 was the common cold—287 cases per 1,000, which was about the same as the preceding year. The death rate during the year was lower than that among men

[1] Emergency Conservation Work. Annual Report of the Director, fiscal year ending June 30, 1936. Washington, 1936.

of similar age groups throughout the registration area. There were 839 deaths from disease (1.97 per 1,000) and 501 from injury (1.18 per 1,000). Primary pneumonia was the chief cause of deaths from disease and automobile accidents the greatest cause of fatal accidents. A continuous safety campaign has reduced the rate of injuries and the rate of deaths from injuries.

Educational Activities

THE educational activities of the C. C. C. have the following objectives: Elimination of illiteracy; supplying deficiencies in common-school subjects; training on the job; general vocational training; avocational training; cultural and general education; health and safety education; character and citizenship training; and assisting enrollees in finding employment. As approximately 2½ percent of the enrollees have been found to be illiterate, one of the main purposes of the educational program is the elimination of illiteracy. Since the C. C. C. started, it is estimated that more than 35,000 boys have been taught to read and write. Elementary high school and college subjects are provided for those who desire to receive such instruction. Vocational courses, however, constitute 50 percent of the courses. Training on the job under technical supervision gives an opportunity to acquire skills in more than 300 jobs, including such work as forestry, stone-masonry, surveying, and clerical work.

Arts and crafts, dramatics, music, and other avocational classes have many pupils. Camp libraries circulate 350,000 books monthly and have over 150,000 regular readers. Camp newspapers are published in more than 1,600 camps.

Work Accomplishments

MORE work was done by the C. C. C. enrollees in 1936 than in 1935; for example, 425,175,600 trees were planted in 1936, as compared with 185,991,400 in 1935, and 1,118,000 soil-erosion check dams were built in 1936, as against 752,000 in 1935. In instances where the total accomplished was less than in the preceding year, it is stated that the quality was superior. Thus the mileage of truck trails built in 1935 was greater than in 1936—22,600 and 17,000 respectively—but the 1936 trails involved much finer engineering and construction.

C. C. C. enrollees are engaged in many types of work on such projects as National- and State-park development, forest-fire reduction, erosion control, water conservation, wild-life conservation, coal-bed fire suppression, etc. In addition to these general lines of work C. C. C. boys have done valuable emergency work. In the 1936 spring floods they built dikes and assisted in saving lives and property. By their work in fighting forest fires, hundreds of thousands of acres of

timber land have been preserved that would otherwise have been destroyed. The results of some of their work during 1936 are shown in the following table:

Work Accomplishments of the C. C. C. During Fiscal Year 1936, by Type of Work

Type of work	Unit	New work	Maintenance
Erosion-control check dams	Number	1,118,120	29,281
Firebreaks	Miles	8,896	9,775
Fire fighting	Man-days	831,890	
Forest-stand improvement	Acres	494,919	4,990
Horse and foot trails	Miles	5,029	16,412
Insect-pest control	Acres	2,822,035	112,419
Lookout houses and towers	Number	413	306
Eradication of poisonous plants, etc	Acres	199,146	
Public camp-grounds development	do	4,848	3,276
Road and trail side cleared	Miles	16,422	
Rodent control	Acres	8,492,470	358,485
Tree and plant disease control	do	1,181,107	64,461
Trees planted	Number	425,175,600	
Telephone lines	Miles	12,596	39,428
Truck trails	do	16,826	71,542

Duration of Unemployment in Great Britain

AN ANALYSIS of data showing the continuity of unemployment of insured workers in Great Britain over a period of 5 years indicates that an average of slightly more than one-half of the men and two-thirds of the women found work in less than 3 months after registering as unemployed. Of those not reemployed within that period, however, approximately 50 percent of the men and 30 percent of the women were out of work 12 months or longer. Among industries having the greatest incidence of unemployment, only 49.7 percent of the insured men on the unemployed register on a given day (June 8, 1936) had been unemployed less than 3 months, while 26.5 percent had been out of work for a year or more.

These data, drawn from the records in the British employment exchanges of insured workers applying for unemployment benefit or assistance, are presented in the Ministry of Labor Gazette of January 1937. Table 1, based on this material, shows the duration of unemployment of workers attached to specified industries whose applications for unemployment benefit or unemployment assistance were on the registers on June 8, 1936. The industries listed are those in which the total applicants numbered 10,000 or more. The Gazette points out that because of the time of year selected, this special analysis shows considerable seasonal unemployment in coal mining, but that employment in other industries was not similarly affected.

Table 1.—Duration of Unemployment of Insured Workers on Unemployment Registers in Great Britain on June 8, 1936, by Industry and Sex

Industry group	Duration of registered unemployment						Total
	Less than 3 months		3 months but less than 12 months		12 months or more		
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Men							
Coal mining	102,517	45.7	40,992	18.3	80,816	36.0	224,325
Pottery, earthenware, etc.	3,776	60.6	1,075	17.3	1,378	22.1	6,229
Iron and steel	17,075	57.1	3,824	12.8	8,999	30.1	29,898
General engineering	19,879	49.4	8,625	21.5	11,714	29.1	40,218
Automobile	8,178	62.3	2,836	21.6	2,120	16.1	13,134
Shipbuilding and repairing	21,483	54.2	6,966	17.6	11,161	28.2	39,610
Textile:							
Cotton	16,028	54.2	6,040	20.4	7,523	25.4	29,591
Woolen and worsted	10,356	80.6	1,572	12.2	914	7.2	12,842
Bleaching, dyeing, etc.	13,737	77.7	1,880	10.7	2,052	11.6	17,669
Tailoring	5,266	59.0	2,382	26.7	1,281	14.3	8,929
Boots and shoes	9,984	71.8	2,051	14.7	1,876	13.5	13,911
Baking	4,590	48.3	2,864	30.2	2,042	21.5	9,496
Furniture	5,695	54.6	2,861	27.4	1,880	18.0	10,436
Printing and bookbinding	6,977	56.2	3,445	27.7	1,997	16.1	12,419
Building	47,632	52.7	24,375	26.9	18,449	20.4	90,456
Public works contracting	28,270	29.0	27,167	27.9	42,074	43.1	97,511
Gas, water, and electricity	5,571	37.2	4,399	29.3	5,028	33.5	14,998
Shipping service	15,964	52.5	8,525	28.0	5,937	19.5	30,426
Docks, harbors, etc.	46,199	89.2	2,858	5.5	2,738	5.3	51,795
Distributive trades	53,341	45.9	36,784	31.6	26,176	22.5	116,301
Local governments	18,105	35.3	15,485	30.2	17,741	34.5	51,331
Entertainments and sports	6,084	43.2	4,419	31.3	3,597	25.5	14,100
Hotel and restaurant	9,890	47.8	6,608	31.9	4,197	20.3	20,695
Other industries and services	133,430	49.3	73,478	27.2	63,614	23.5	270,522
All industries and services	610,027	49.7	291,511	23.8	325,304	26.5	1,226,842
Women							
Coal mining	312	50.8	170	27.7	132	21.5	614
Pottery, earthenware, etc.	5,559	81.0	963	14.0	339	5.0	6,861
Iron and steel	73	49.3	37	25.0	38	25.7	148
General engineering	909	67.2	335	24.8	108	8.0	1,352
Automobile	519	69.2	208	27.7	23	3.1	750
Shipbuilding and repairing	110	73.3	30	20.0	10	6.7	150
Textile:							
Cotton	27,503	67.0	6,958	17.0	6,563	16.0	41,024
Woolen and worsted	11,316	91.3	772	6.2	309	2.5	12,397
Bleaching, dyeing, etc.	3,538	81.5	498	11.5	306	7.0	4,342
Tailoring	5,221	81.5	898	14.0	290	4.5	6,409
Boots and shoes	4,403	89.0	450	9.0	94	2.0	4,947
Baking	1,601	55.2	1,058	36.5	243	8.3	2,902
Furniture	715	61.2	369	31.6	84	7.2	1,168
Printing and bookbinding	2,923	65.7	1,205	27.1	320	7.2	4,448
Building	104	50.2	79	38.2	24	11.6	207
Public works contracting	13	56.5	5	21.7	5	21.7	23
Gas, water, and electricity	125	59.0	71	33.5	16	7.5	212
Shipping service	247	64.2	112	29.0	26	6.8	385
Docks, harbors, etc.	96	82.8	18	15.5	2	1.7	116
Distributive trades	16,465	56.0	10,341	35.1	2,620	8.9	29,426
Local governments	260	53.8	163	33.8	60	12.4	483
Entertainments and sports	2,752	68.3	1,031	25.6	247	6.1	4,030
Hotel and restaurant	9,765	58.6	5,236	31.4	1,656	10.0	16,657
Other industries and services	50,220	66.9	18,913	25.2	5,959	7.9	75,092
All industries and services	144,749	67.6	49,920	23.3	19,474	9.1	214,143

These figures reflect the depressed condition of the heavy industries, since coal mining, iron and steel, general engineering, shipbuilding, building construction, and public works account for more than 53 percent of the men out of work for 12 months or longer, although the unemployed men attached to those industries constituted only 42.5

percent of the total number of insured men registered as unemployed on the day of the inquiry. The figures indicate also that women experience more short-time and much less long-time unemployment than do men.

Geographic differences are also pronounced. As early as 1933, unemployment of long duration was relatively slight in the south of England, where response to recovery was both sharp and prompt. In the London, southeastern, and southwestern areas, the number of men who in June 1933 had been continuously unemployed for a year or longer was only 8.6 percent of the total of insured men applying for unemployment benefits or assistance, and by December 1936 the total number in these sections, who had been unemployed for a year or more, had been reduced 33⅓ percent.

On the other hand, the situation is much more serious in the north of England, Scotland, and Wales, where recovery has not been so marked as in the south, and where most of the so-called special areas are located.

In June 1933, the men who had been unemployed for 12 months or more represented 31.3 percent of the total men applicants for benefit or assistance in the northeastern division, 24.2 percent in the northwestern division, 33.8 percent in Scotland, and 32.1 percent in Wales. The corresponding figures for June 1936 are 28.7 percent for the northeastern division, 27.2 percent for the northwestern division, 34.6 percent for Scotland, and 37.7 percent for Wales. At June 22, 1936, the rate of unemployment among insured men in these divisions, taken as a whole, was 22.1 percent. Between December 1933 and December 1936, the numbers of men who had been unemployed for 12 months or more, fell by 35 percent in the northeastern and northwestern divisions, and by 37 percent in Scotland. In Wales, however, the reduction was only 12 percent.

The sharp decrease in the amount of unemployment lasting less than 3 months, and the less marked reduction in the numbers out of work for a year or longer, over a 5-year period, are shown in table 2. Ministry of Labor figures give these data at quarterly intervals, but for brevity only the last period in each year is shown. Because of the seasonal character of unemployment (to which the Ministry of Labor Gazette calls attention) in two of the periods for which figures are given—January and July—October was selected as representing normal employment.

Table 2.—Duration of Unemployment of Insured Workers in Great Britain Registered as Unemployed on Dates Specified, by Sex

Date	Less than 3 months	3 but less than 6 months	6 but less than 12 months	12 months and over	Total
Oct. 24, 1932:					
Men	1,123,400	261,543	303,422	419,109	2,107,474
Women	212,638	35,592	24,728	27,253	300,211
Oct. 23, 1933:					
Men	895,968	188,458	220,823	445,619	1,750,868
Women	168,591	23,143	18,725	20,194	230,653
Oct. 22, 1934:					
Men	837,217	162,227	167,631	369,433	1,536,508
Women	191,429	26,456	17,348	17,392	252,625
Oct. 21, 1935:					
Men	716,866	138,649	156,033	360,911	1,372,459
Women	164,512	23,308	16,772	19,916	224,508
Oct. 26, 1936:					
Men	616,195	109,447	112,004	299,123	1,136,769
Women	145,645	19,662	13,636	18,874	197,817

Commenting on the showing of the complete figures over the 5-year period, covering both the acute point of depression and the current revival, the Gazette says:

Although the numbers of men and women continuously unemployed for 12 months or more still number about 314,000 it must be remembered that of all the applicants for benefit or assistance 58 percent have been on the register continuously for less than 3 months and 69 percent for less than 6 months. It may be expected that if employment continues to improve, particularly in the heavy industries and the depressed areas, the numbers unemployed for long periods should appreciably diminish.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

French Legislation on Industrial Arbitration

A LAW providing for conciliation and arbitration of disputes between employers and employees in industry and commerce was enacted in France on December 31, 1936. With respect to new disputes the act states that the differences shall be submitted to conciliation and arbitration "before any strike or lock-out." In disputes in progress at the time of enactment of the law, work must be resumed at the time that the law is invoked in bringing about a settlement. If recourse to conciliation will mean undue delay, cases may be submitted for arbitration without such preliminaries. Arbitrators are required to make their decisions without delay, on the basis of facts disclosed, either finally or provisionally; in such cases all the rights of the parties are reserved until the decision on other pending questions is made. Findings of arbitrators, whether provisional or final, are binding and without appeal and must be rendered publicly.

The objectives of arbitration, as contemplated by the law, will be to establish an equitable regulation of working conditions and the protection of collective and individual rights and liberties, i. e., the right of ownership, syndical rights, individual rights, individual liberty, freedom to work, and syndical liberty.

In cases in which the matters in dispute are referred to an umpire (*surarbitre*) and in which the parties to the dispute and the two regular arbitrators are unable to agree upon the person who is to act in this capacity, the State reserves the right to make the appointment from among active or retired Government employees. In the absence of collective agreements establishing arbitral procedures, the Government is empowered to promulgate methods by decree of the Federal council, subject to provisions of an earlier enactment. However, the powers thus granted are restricted to the period of the ordinary session of 1937, after which time new arrangements may be expected.

The law reads as follows:

ARTICLE 1. In industry and commerce all disputes between employers and employees collectively must be submitted to conciliation and arbitration before any strike or lockout.

ART. 2. Conflicts already in progress are also subject to the same procedure. With respect to conflicts in progress the setting in motion of these procedures will entail for all parties the obligation to resume work.

All disputes of a nature that would retard this immediate resumption of work will be submitted directly to arbitrators without preliminary attempts at conciliation. Arbitrators are required to make decisions, either finally or provisionally, without delay, on the basis of facts disclosed; in such cases all the rights of the parties are reserved until the decision on other pending questions is made. The decisions of arbitrators, whether provisional or final, are not subject to appeal.

ART. 3. In the absence of collective agreements fixing the rules of procedure for conciliation and arbitration, the Government is empowered, up to the close of the ordinary session of 1937 and for all conflicts arising under article 1, to establish the manner of procedures by decrees rendered by the Federal Council, in conformity with article 15, paragraph 2 of the monetary law of October 1, 1936.

The decree mentioned in article 15 of the monetary law shall be issued in the form of a regulation for the administration of the law.

The decrees made by virtue of the present law and article 15 of the monetary law of October 1, 1936, will be abrogated in full on the date provided. All procedures in course of progress at that time will follow their course.

ART. 4. If it becomes necessary to designate an umpire because the parties or the first arbitrators have failed to agree on this choice, the umpire shall be designated from among the active or retired government employees.

ART. 5. The procedure to be followed in conciliation and compulsory arbitration will be in accordance with existing law.

The two arbitrators and the umpire will have the power of making amicable settlement.

Arbitration will have for its objective the equitable regulation of conditions of work, with a view to creating an atmosphere of cooperation in the mutual rights of the parties; right of ownership, syndical rights, individual rights, individual liberty, freedom to work, and syndical liberty.

ART. 6. Arbitral awards are binding and without appeal. They are obligatory. They must be rendered publicly.

By decree of January 16, 1937, regulations governing procedure under the arbitration law were provided. Three steps looking toward conciliation were allowed for before taking recourse to arbitration. If a case remains unsettled and comes up for arbitration and either party fails to designate arbitrators, the National Economic Council is empowered to make the required appointments from lists submitted by the most representative labor and employer organizations. For this purpose the Confédération Générale du Travail has been named as the appropriate worker organization and the Confédération Générale du Patronal Français as the employer organization.

Industrial Advisory Councils in the Netherlands

THE Industrial Councils Act of April 7, 1933 (Staadblad, 1933, No. 160), provided for the establishment in the Netherlands of special joint councils of workers and employers for the purpose of regulating relations between workers and their employers.[1]

[1] See Monthly Labor Review, February 1933 (p. 309).

The act provides that such a council may act as a deliberative, an advisory, an executive, or an arbitrative body, but not in a legislative or judiciary capacity.

As a deliberative agency, a council is empowered to formulate collective agreements, to promote education and training of workers, to help to combat unemployment, to promote friendly negotiations between workers and employers regarding labor conditions and their relations to each other, to promote the establishment of benefit funds for workers, and to consider various technical matters and methods in establishments so far as they affect labor conditions.

Workers and employers have equal representation on these councils. The number of members varies from 6 to 20, depending upon the size of industry or establishment.

At the end of 1936 there were about 12 such industrial councils in the Netherlands.[2] These were mainly in the so-called "middle class" industries, employing hairdressers, painters, and plasterers, etc., and in the typographic industry.

No funds were made available for payment for administrative work, meetings, etc., secretaryship being undertaken voluntarily by one of the council members. The question of some system of taxation upon industry to provide the necessary funds is now under discussion, but this will necessitate a change in the law.

[2] Report of Homer Brett, American Consul at Rotterdam, Netherlands, Dec. 10, 1936.

INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR CONDITIONS

Prohibition of Home Work in Men's Neckwear Industry in New York [1]

THE prohibition of home work in the manufacture of men's neckwear in New York under an order issued by the State Industrial Commissioner, effective May 1, 1937, marks another step in the movement to eliminate industrial home work in New York State. The order "prohibits industrial home work and the distribution of articles for industrial home work by any employer, contractor, or agent of an employer, manufacturing, processing, or repairing articles of men's and boy's neckwear." While certain exemptions are permitted, they apply only to employers who actually maintain and operate factories, thus eliminating contractors who merely take unfinished work from manufacturers and place it with home workers to be finished.

Neckwear manufacture was one to which the prohibition of home work was applied by the N. R. A. code. The industry employs normally from 4,000 to 5,000 factory workers and about 1,000 home workers. Before the adoption of the code, about 70 percent of the workers employed as "slip stitchers" or hand finishers in New York State were home workers. During the operation of the N. R. A. code, about 900 of these workers were transferred to the shops of the employers. Improved methods of production were introduced, and a minimum piece-work rate of 45 cents for slip stitching a dozen ties was established.

The practice of employing industrial home workers in the hand finishing of neckwear was resumed after the nullification of the code. Within a few months, the proportion of home workers had increased to 31 percent of all slip stitchers, and the number employed on that operation in factories decreased. The contracting system expanded, and contractors cut the rate to the point where, by the fall of 1935, practically all home workers were receiving less than the code rate for slip stitching; 64 percent were paid less than 30 cents a dozen, and in some cases the rate was as low as 23 cents. This was followed by a similar reduction in rates on the part of the manufacturers, at a time

[1] Data are from news releases issued by Labor Publications Editor, New York State Department of Labor, dated Feb. 15 and Feb. 26, 1937.

when wages on the whole were rising. By 1936, 46 percent of the slip stitchers employed in factories and 64 percent of those employed at home directly by the manufacturers were receiving less than the 45-cent rate fixed by the code.

These facts were established by an investigation conducted by the division of women in industry and minimum wage of the New York Department of Labor. The investigation was made in connection with complaints of low wages and an application for an order prohibiting home work on men's neckwear, made by the neckwear division of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, as provided for by the industrial home-work law of the State. After the findings of the investigation were reported to the industrial commissioner, a public hearing was held upon the application for an executive order to end home work in the industry.

Following the public hearing the industrial commissioner announced that "after a review of all the evidence, I have concluded that an order prohibiting home work in the men's and boy's neckwear industry is the best method of eliminating the evils which accompany the home-work system." It was pointed out that experience under the N. R. A. had proved that the industry could adjust to factory production, "with benefit alike to the workers and to the progressive employers in the industry who desire to maintain satisfactory wages and working conditions."

The order exempts a home worker who has a permit and who, before February 3, 1937, received work from an employer who also had a permit to employ home workers issued prior to that date, if the home worker is "unable to adjust to factory work because of age, or is physically or mentally disabled * * * or is unable to leave home because the worker's presence is required to care for an invalid in the home." Home workers exempted under this ruling may take work from one employer only.

Employers who are permitted to employ home workers under the exemption clause of the order must insure them against accident in accordance with the State workmen's compensation law; must deliver material to the home workers, and must pay not less than the rate paid to factory workers for the same work. A limit is fixed upon the amount of work that may be given out to a home worker each week, and methods of keeping home-work accounts and pay rolls are prescribed.

HOUSING CONDITIONS

Continuation of Government Insurance of Housing Loans

THE National Housing Act has been amended to continue until July 1, 1939, governmental insurance of mortgage loans by the Federal Housing Administration. This action was taken by Public Resolution No. 6, Seventy-fifth Congress (ch. 12, 1st sess. (S. J. Res. 38)), approved February 19, 1937. The guaranty by the United States of debentures issued by the Federal Housing Administrator has been extended several times. This service to home owners was authorized under the original housing law, enacted on June 27, 1934, to remain effective until January 1, 1936, and was later extended in periods of varying length up to July 1, 1937.

Low-Cost Housing in Europe

IN A SURVEY of housing in Great Britain and the Continent of Europe, made by the Federal Housing Administration,[1] the conclusion was reached that, in the countries covered, Government participation in housing is an accepted policy. The study was undertaken in the summer of 1936, when two representatives of the Administration visited 21 cities in the following 10 countries: England, the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, and Czechoslovakia.

Data were obtained from State and municipal housing officials as well as from representatives of the private housing officials and some financing institutions. It was sought to discover trends in governmental policy and private activity.

The resulting study, arranged by topic rather than country, gives brief descriptions of activity in different areas and presents material on volume of construction, costs of buildings, ratio of private to public work, and costs. From the facts obtained abroad and over a long

[1] U. S. Federal Housing Administration. European Housing Policy and Practice, by Ernest M. Fisher and Richard U. Ratcliff. Washington, 1936.

period of study in this field, the following conclusions were reached and made a part of the original report:

I. Governmental participation in housing is permanent, though its form is changeable. The complication of forces in this field has compelled European governments to adopt comprehensive programs.

II. Decentralized responsibility for the administration of housing policies, under the guidance and control of the central government, is universal.

III. Subsidies to stimulate house production have been generally abandoned. The present emphasis is on improvement of housing conditions by other means than outright subsidies, and the most widely adopted form of assistance is the extension of government credit.

IV. Differential renting, the fixing of rents in subsidized housing on the basis of individual ability to pay, is widely accepted as a sound procedure, and its application in varied form is spreading, particularly in England.

V. The problem of housing the working classes on an economic basis has not been solved, and, except for a few outstanding examples, the rate of improvement of housing conditions for the lowest-income groups has not been satisfactory.

VI. The ownership by municipalities of large areas of undeveloped land at the urban periphery has proved to be a major advantage in controlling land utilization and in providing sites for low-rent housing at low cost.

VII. The solution of the problem of improving housing conditions for the low-income groups involves a large measure of social rehabilitation of the tenants.

VIII. The collection of statistics on housing has long been a function of local and central governments. There is an increasing emphasis on this activity as a basis for the proper guidance of housing policy.

IX. The improvement of housing conditions among the lower-income groups through "filtering up" into better housing has not been effective in Europe.

X. No single remedy exists for the many coordinate problems of housing. The greatest progress is being made in those countries where governmental intervention in housing is accepted as an integral part of a broad program for social betterment, and where there has been a flexible application of a comprehensive and correlated complement of measures.

XI. Cooperative housing has reached its highest development in Scandinavia where it is part of a strong cooperative movement embracing the production and distribution of both industrial and agricultural products.

XII. The organization of the building industry and the characteristics of the real-estate market differ markedly in European countries from those familiar in the United States. The current building boom in England is reminiscent of that in America during the 1920's and has probably passed its peak.

XIII. European home-mortgage markets are generally characterized by specialized lending agencies, and by varying degrees of governmental participation.

XIV. Although the application in America of the housing policies and practices adopted by European countries is limited by social, economic, and legal differences, it is possible to derive general principles and adaptations of method which might form the basis of a comprehensive program for this country.

HEALTH AND INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Program for Prevention and Compensation of Silicosis

THAT silicosis, though perhaps not curable by any means at present known to medical science, is definitely preventable, and that, as an occupational disease, it must be made compensable and brought within the control of governmental regulatory and administrative agencies, are the conclusions of groups of industrial physicians, engineers, insurance attorneys and experts, State and Federal Government administrators, and labor officials, appointed by the Secretary of Labor to study the problem of silicosis. The committees representing these various groups presented their findings and recommendations at the Second National Silicosis Conference held at the invitation of the Secretary of Labor on February 3, 1937, in Washington. These committees had been appointed at the first National Silicosis Conference called by the Secretary, which met in Washington on April 14, 1936. They were four in number, and dealt, respectively, with (1) prevention of silicosis through medical control; (2) prevention through engineering control; (3) the economic, legal, and insurance phases of the silicosis problem; and (4) the regulatory and administrative phases of the problem.

Nature and Extent of Silicosis

PHYSICIANS generally agree that silicosis, in layman language, is a disease of the lungs, caused by breathing air containing silica dust, in which the normal lung tissue is replaced by fibrous or scar tissue.

Silica dust is found in many industrial operations, but the hazard is acute only in such industries as metal mining; anthracite mining; quarrying, drilling, and tunneling in granite, ganister, and sandstone; smelting and refining; foundries; potteries; glass works; stone-products industries; grinding; buffing; and sandblasting.

Of the 49,000,000 workers in the United States, only 1,000,000, or 2 percent, it is estimated, are in any way exposed to the hazard of silicosis. About half of this number, or 1 percent of the total number of workers in the country, are exposed to a serious hazard, and approximately 110,000 of these have silicosis in some degree. Medical examination of men actually at work indicates that between 4,000 and 5,000 workers are seriously affected by the disease, in addition to those already permanently detached from their employment by reason of disabling silicosis.

The status of the 1,000,000 workers exposed to the hazard of silicosis was analyzed thus by the committees making the survey:

A percentage of the 4,000 to 5,000 workers having silicosis are completely or partially disabled because of this disease and have their difficulties further complicated with tuberculosis.

The remainder of the 4,000 to 5,000 have silicosis and disability in some degree, but no tuberculosis.

Approximately 105,000 have silicosis, but no disability and no tuberculosis.

Approximately 900,000 are exposed to silica dust, but have not contracted the disease.

Contrary to popular belief, silicosis is slow to develop. Ususally it takes 7 years or more of exposure to silica dust for a worker to contract the disease. A few cases that have been known to develop in as short a period as 1½ years occurred under extreme and unusual conditions. On the other hand, many workers have labored under ordinary exposures to silica for more than 30 years without demonstrating any trouble whatever that could be diagnosed as silicosis.

Silicosis Prevention

Silicosis can be prevented in three general ways: First, by preventing the creation of silica dust; second, by preventing the dispersion of dust into the atmosphere of a working area; and third, if it is impossible to apply the first two methods, by the use of personal protective equipment such as respirators, to prevent the inhalation of the dust.

In carrying out a prevention program, many agencies must cooperate. In the view of the committees studying the problem, the employer is called on to do most of the work and to spend most of the money. But his work and money will never accomplish the maximum results unless the worker is willing to cooperate and carry his share of the responsibility for helping to control dust and for using the personal protective equipment.

In addition, physicians can play a definite part in preventing silicosis, as can also engineers, insurance companies, legislators, administrators, and others.

The reports of the conference committees on engineering control and medical control recommend specific procedures for attacking the problem through those two avenues of prevention. Summaries of these recommendations follow:

Survey the working conditions.—Any employer who has reason to believe that his workers are exposed to the hazard of breathing silica dust should make a survey of the working conditions. This will enable him to determine the severity of the hazard and will probably indicate what needs to be done to decrease it. Assistance in making this survey, in making dust counts, and in handling other details, can be obtained from bureaus of industrial hygiene now established in most industrial States.

Secure information on best procedure.—Before formulating a program for decreasing the silicosis hazard, the employer should secure the best information obtainable. Usually he can obtain valuable data from the leaders in his industry, perhaps from the codes prepared by certain industries, from his State bureau of industrial hygiene, and from other sources. Effective results often can be obtained at little cost through the installation of mechanical equipment.

Design plant for dust control.—Much can be accomplished through design, when new buildings are contemplated or when old buildings are to be remodeled. For instance, structural projections and ledges may be minimized, to prevent the accumulation of dust that might later be released into the atmosphere by air currents or by building vibration. Building interiors should be so constructed that they may be easily cleaned by washing, hosing, vacuum cleaning, or brushing. In some cases operations may be located over gratings, beneath which equipment is provided for removing the materials and dust that fall through.

Provide building ventilation.—Special facilities for natural or mechanical ventilation may help to eliminate dust, but usually cannot be relied upon to provide complete protection in dusty operations.

Store dusty materials in dusttight bins.—Dusty materials should be stored in dusttight bins, tanks, or enclosures, but each structure of this type should be provided with a breather or vent stack—perhaps with an exhaust fan in the stack—to permit the air displaced during loading to be carried outside the building. Basements may be used for storage purposes but should not be used for dusty manufacturing operations.

Enclose material-handling equipment.—Excessive dust created by material-handling equipment can usually be confined by housing, and removed by an exhaust system. Some materials can be kept in a moist condition while being handled, but when this is done, the material may dry out and be dispersed into the atmosphere as dust.

Isolate dusty processes.—Where possible, several or all dusty processes may be isolated from the rest of the plant. This sometimes permits the installation of a more compact exhaust system resulting in more efficient operation and lower maintenance cost.

Provide wet methods of operation.—Water, oil, and other liquids may be used effectively—

1. To suppress dust at the point of origin in such operations as rock-drilling; handling, pulverizing, and milling rock and ore; grinding metal on grindstones; abrasive-wheel cutting of granite and sandstone.

2. To prevent the redispersion of dust that has settled on the floors, walls, and other surfaces such as in the granite industry and in foundries.

Design equipment to control dust.—When new machinery or other equipment is contemplated, the manufacturer can frequently be encouraged to include dust-control features, such as exhaust hoods, as an integral part of the design and construction. In some operations, exhaust systems may be installed to remove dust at its point of origin.

Establish good maintenance and housekeeping procedure.—Good housekeeping is unquestionably the cheapest single method of controlling dust, and maintenance goes hand in hand with it. The best equipment will not control dust if superintendents, foremen, and workers are careless and disorderly in their work. Eight suggestions are advanced by the conference committees:

1. If dusttight equipment is installed, it should be inspected at regular and frequent intervals and all defects should be corrected as soon as they are detected.
2. Operations should be performed in a manner that will create the minimum amount of dust.
3. Use water under pressure, where possible, to clean building interiors.
4. If practicable, combine water with air for cleaning purposes.
5. Vacuum cleaning removes dust without dispersing it elsewhere.
6. Brushing is particularly adaptable for cleaning buildings of the older type of construction.
7. Low-pressure steam can sometimes be used to advantage.
8. A responsible person should be assigned the task of supervising maintenance and housekeeping activities. Among other things he should make tests from time to time to make sure that the program of dust control is achieving the desired results.

Provide respirators.—The conference committees agree unqualifiedly that dust elimination is the primary consideration in solving the silicosis problem. When known methods of elimination are not applicable or are ineffective, respirators should be provided. Respirators, however, are recommended only as a last resort and for occasional exposure only. Under these conditions, rotation of personnel is advisable.

Two general types of respirators are suitable for protection against silica dust. These are air-purifying respirators that filter out the dust particles, and supplied-air respirators in which dust-free air breathed by the worker comes to him from an uncontaminated outside source.

Most of the respirator manufacturers have submitted their devices for testing and approval by the United States Bureau of Mines. Lists of such devices can be secured by writing to that Bureau at Washington, D. C.

To maintain the effectiveness of respirators, a regular procedure should be established for cleaning, sterilizing, and repairing all respirators. The conference committees also present numerous suggestions for obtaining the workers' cooperation in wearing respirators.

Instruct the workers.—The educational methods used in accident-prevention work may be followed to advantage in silicosis prevention.

As in accident prevention, the foreman is a keyman—his full cooperation is essential.

Responsibility of the Worker

THE cooperation of the workers is necessary if the hazard of silicosis is to be reduced to the minimum. The worker should realize that the safe practices recommended and the equipment provided are designed to prevent injury to himself and to his fellow workers. The equipment should be used as directed and every effort should be made to maintain it in good working order. Furthermore, the worker is frequently in a position to observe faulty equipment and unsafe practices, and he should make it a point to report all such conditions to his supervisor.

Statutory Regulation

WHILE the primary approach to the problem must be prevention and diminution of the hazard, the fact must be recognized that until silicosis has been wiped out, workers who now have the disease, as well as those who may contract it, must receive workmen's compensation just as do those workers who are injured in accidents.

Accordingly, the committees of the silicosis conference are unanimous in presenting the following recommendations:

Coverage for silicosis in the compensation acts of all States.

This coverage should be compulsory.

Because of competition between the same or similar industries in various States, the laws, rules, and regulations of the several States should be as uniform as practicable.

The employer should insure his obligation for compensation either through self-insurance subject to the posting of adequate funds, or with an authorized insurance institution.

Insurance should not be denied any employer, provided the State authorities certify that he complies with the State requirements as to proper safe working conditions, and pays the premiums involved.

Workers having active pulmonary tuberculosis and silicosis should be removed from employment. Such workers should be granted suitable compensation payments and medical care.

Workers disabled from silicosis (but with no tuberculosis) should ultimately be granted the same amount of compensation as those disabled by accidental injury.

Two years is a reasonable minimum limitation period for filing claims subsequent to the date of the last exposure.

Because expert medical advice is necessary to assure justice to all parties in determining disability in silicosis cases, it is suggested that a medical advisory board of examiners and experts on silicosis should be established as an official impartial body in each State. Whether or not the finding of the medical advisory board should be accepted as final in the adjudication of silicosis cases raises a question on which the conference committees do not recommend an answer.

It is assumed that each State already has a department of public health and a department of labor. Ignoring the question of which department should be given responsibility for silicosis prevention, it is recommended that in each State there should be two bureaus; one a bureau of occupational hygiene, and the other a bureau of inspection. There should be close cooperation between these two

bureaus, but in general the bureau of occupational hygiene should make general health surveys, conduct individual-plant studies, carry on necessary research, advise the department on the formulation of regulations, and carry on health educational activities. The bureau of inspection should, of course, carry on regular inspection activities and serve in an advisory capacity for both the department and the bureau of occupational hygiene.

The committee believes that primary emphasis should be placed upon State legislation to provide for the prevention of silicosis injuries to employees and to provide compensation for such injuries so sustained during the course of employment. It recommends Federal legislation to provide more adequate appropriations to the United States Public Health Service, the United States Bureau of Mines, and the United States Department of Labor, to permit these agencies to continue and expand their research and study of the medical, engineering, economic, legal, and insurance phases of the silicosis problem.

Health of Industrial Policyholders in 1936[1]

THE 1936 mortality rate among the 17,500,000 industrial policyholders of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. was the lowest on record. Incomplete figures for the general population of the United States available at the close of the third quarter of the year were not so favorable. Dissimilarity in the groups represented is cited as one factor explaining the differences. Industrial policyholders are almost entirely city dwellers, in contrast to the general population, which is 44 percent rural. The report reviewed states that the intensely cold winter of 1935–36, combined with the drought and protracted heat of the summer, may have operated to increase the rural death rate. However, in a sample group of cities the industrial policyholder group, including their families, had a better health record than the general population. Another factor partially explaining the differences in mortality between the two groups is the age distribution; the general population contains a relatively higher proportion of infants and old persons.

Using the crude death rate of industrial policyholders in 1936—that is, 8.398 per 1,000—the rate in that year was slightly above the figure for 1935, which was 8.376 per 1,000, but when age adjustments are allowed for, this negligible rise is wiped out and replaced by a decrease of four-tenths of 1 per cent between 1935 and 1936. The record for individual causes of death reflects a decrease, establishing a new low for typhoid fever, measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough, diphtheria, tuberculosis, chronic nephritis, and puerperal conditions. In addition to the decline in deaths from these eight causes, those caused by homicide and accidental burns were lower than ever before, and accidental drownings had an identical rate with the previous minimum.

Special interest attaches to the reduction in mortality from tuberculosis. This has been practically continuous for 25 years—the decrease

[1] Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Statistical Bulletin, January 1937: Nineteen Thirty-Six Another Record Health Year.

in 10 years was 45 percent, and in 25 years it amounted to 76 percent. The rate fell below 100 per 100,000 for the first time in 1925, having been 197.8 only 10 years earlier. Tuberculosis fell from the leading cause of death among insured wage earners, up to 1920, to seventh place in the latest year for which records are available. Notwithstanding the long-range improvement, attention is directed to the fact that not all aspects of the situation are so favorable. Between 1935 and 1936 the decline in the rate was only 2.9 percent, as compared with an average annual drop of 7.6 percent from 1930 to 1935.

The favorable developments with respect to the principal communicable diseases of childhood—measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough and diphtheria—brought about a frequency rate of 6.5 per 100,000 for all four together. This is the lowest rate recorded. The rate for diphtheria is particularly significant, having been 27.3 per 100,000 in 1911 as compared with 1.8 per 100,000 in 1936. This means that the frequency in the latter year was one-fifteenth of that recorded 25 years before. For measles the rate was reduced to one-thirteenth, for scarlet fever to one-sixth, and for whooping cough to one-fourth.

Typhoid-fever mortality decreased from 23 per 100,000 in 1911 to 1 per 100,000 in 1936, the decline being the highest recorded among causes of death. The frequency of chronic nephritis has dropped continuously for 4 years among insured wage earners and their families. Deaths from disease connected with pregnancy and childbirth were 7.7 per 100,000, or 11.5 percent below the level of 1935. Deaths from puerperal disease have been cut in half in 10 years. While the decline in the birth rate is held partially responsible, the records for the general population show that the mortality rate from this cause has declined at a more rapid rate than that of births.

Aside from the foregoing eight diseases which registered declines in mortality, cancer was the only disease to show a noteworthy drop; that is, 2.7 percent below 1935. Negligible decreases were reported for influenza, angina pectoris, and appendicitis. The alcoholism death rate was identical with that for 1935, namely 2.1 per 100,000, this being the lowest rate recorded since 1921.

Increased death rates were recorded among sufferers from pneumonia, heart disease, syphilis, diabetes, cerebral hemorrhage, diarrheal and coronary diseases. Among these diseases the deaths from pneumonia were particularly significant, having increased by 5.6 percent over 1935. Although the 1936 rate of 69.8 per 100,000 was the highest since 1931, it is far below the rates existing prior to that time.

Life expectancy of insured wage earners has continued to rise, and the report here reviewed placed the then existing age at over 60 as compared with 46.6 years in 1911 and 1912. This increase is about 1¾ times that for the general population and places the expectation of the insured group at about the same level as that of the general

population, in spite of the fact that the insured live almost entirely in cities, where death rates are usually higher than in the country, and that wage earners are subject to greater industrial hazards than the general population.

The continued decline in the death rates of children, adolescents, and young adults is regarded as an especially gratifying development in 1936. Children 1 to 4 years of age had a 78 percent lower death rate in 1936 than in 1911; for those 5 to 9 years the decrease was 64.5 percent in the same period, and for age groups up to 45 the decreases were over one-half. The declines are less conspicuous for higher age ranges, but substantially below the mortality rates of a quarter century ago.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Trend of Strikes

PRELIMINARY information indicates that about 230 new strikes began in February 1937 in which 100,000 workers were involved. Another 125,000 workers were involved in 110 strikes which continued into February from preceding months, making a total of 225,000 workers involved in the 340 strikes in progress during the month.

Trend of Strikes, January 1935 to February 1937 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1935								
January	73	140	213	130	83	81,194	92,630	720,778
February	83	149	232	130	102	64,238	96,533	836,498
March	102	175	277	163	114	53,089	98,457	966,980
April	114	180	294	161	133	67,857	124,174	1,178,851
May	133	174	307	177	130	102,491	151,163	1,697,848
June	130	189	319	186	133	48,917	129,784	1,311,278
July	133	184	317	179	138	70,046	141,829	1,297,730
August	138	239	377	228	149	74,313	150,835	1,191,663
September	149	162	311	169	142	453,820	514,427	3,027,040
October	142	190	332	200	132	48,223	133,742	1,562,908
November	132	142	274	154	120	38,279	100,732	1,003,852
December	120	90	210	126	84	14,746	61,782	660,911
1936								
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,273
February	102	148	250	130	120	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	120	183	303	174	129	75,178	122,155	1,331,113
April	129	183	312	179	133	65,391	95,531	699,690
May	133	204	337	218	119	72,635	122,833	1,018,100
June	119	187	306	158	148	63,423	133,443	1,325,492
July	148	170	318	195	123	37,913	125,089	1,103,382
August	123	225	348	209	139	68,680	118,138	909,589
September	139	232	371	231	140	65,961	130,695	1,061,048
October	140	186	326	212	114	99,644	147,313	1,059,856
November	114	135	249	125	124	70,730	157,117	1,944,464
December	124	129	253	153	100	73,326	185,560	2,079,344
1937								
January [1]	100	160	260	150	110	104,000	210,000	2,700,000
February [1]	110	230	340	190	150	100,000	225,000	1,485,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than six workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table, nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from 670 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last two months and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

There were 1,485,000 man-days of idleness during February because of these strikes. As compared with the previous month, these figures show an increase of 44 percent in the number of new strikes, but a decrease of 4 percent in the number of workers involved and a decrease of 45 percent in man-days of idleness. The decline in the number of man-days idle is accounted for principally by the fact that the west coast maritime strike and the General Motors Corporation strike, which were in progress during the entire month of January, were settled early in February.

The strike figures for February are unusually high for that time of the year. As compared with the corresponding month a year ago, there was an increase of 55 percent in number of strikes, 59 percent in number of workers involved, and practically 100 percent in man-days of idleness.

An analysis of strikes in February 1937, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in the June issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Analysis of Strikes in December 1936 [1]

OF the 253 strikes in progress during December 1936, 124 began in previous months but continued into December. There were more than 185,000 workers involved in these strikes, a greater number than in any previous month of 1936. The number of man-days of idleness because of strikes in December was also greater than in any previous month of the year. Usually there is a decrease in strike activity in December. During December 1935 there were fewer workers involved in strikes and fewer man-days of idleness than in any previous month of the year. This was also the case in 1934. The unusually high figures for December 1936 are accounted for principally by the Pacific coast maritime strike, disputes in the two largest glass companies, and strikes against the General Motors Corporation.

Of the 129 strikes which began in December, 22 were in wholesale and retail trade, 13 were in the textile industries, 12 were in the transportation and communication industries, and 10 were in the industries manufacturing transportation equipment.

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received (see footnote to preceding table). Dat on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

Table 1.—Strikes and Lock-Outs in December 1936, by Industry

Industry	Beginning in December		In progress during December		Man-days idle during December
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**129**	**73,326**	**253**	**185,560**	**2,079,344**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**6**	**2,264**	**9**	**2,733**	**20,268**
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets			1	52	208
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	160	1	160	1,120
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures			1	313	3,443
Stoves	1	1,563	1	1,563	10,941
Structural and ornamental metal work	1	30	1	30	420
Other	3	511	4	615	4,136
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**6**	**977**	**15**	**3,598**	**58,335**
Agricultural implements			1	2,100	46,200
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	1	131	4	363	6,048
Foundry and machine-shop products	1	90	5	352	3,625
Radios and phonographs	1	29	2	56	500
Other	3	727	3	727	1,962
Transportation equipment	**10**	**30,582**	**19**	**36,906**	**273,837**
Automobiles, bodies, and parts	8	25,930	12	29,651	174,283
Shipbuilding	2	4,652	7	7,255	99,554
Nonferrous metals and their products	**3**	**1,943**	**5**	**2,214**	**18,135**
Aluminum manufactures	2	1,387	2	1,387	9,983
Lighting equipment	1	556	1	556	2,780
Silverware and plated ware			1	59	708
Stamped and enameled ware			1	212	4,664
Lumber and allied products	**3**	**306**	**9**	**1,634**	**31,016**
Furniture	1	74	3	252	4,275
Millwork and planing	1	15	1	15	74
Sawmills			1	600	13,200
Other	1	217	4	767	13,467
Stone, clay, and glass products	**1**	**7,100**	**5**	**14,045**	**290,730**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta			1	500	11,000
Glass	1	7,100	3	13,485	279,370
Other			1	60	360
Textiles and their products	**13**	**5,274**	**44**	**15,695**	**184,618**
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods	4	1,778	4	1,778	2,404
Dyeing and finishing textiles	1	89	4	383	6,255
Silk and rayon goods	1	78	6	2,129	40,886
Woolen and worsted goods			1	451	9,922
Other			6	1,040	22,880
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	1	340	2	440	2,140
Clothing, women's	3	140	6	411	7,086
Men's furnishings	1	122	1	122	976
Hats, caps, and millinery	1	2,713	2	2,863	14,183
Shirts and collars			1	400	8,800
Hosiery			7	4,966	53,576
Knitgoods	1	14	1	14	154
Other			3	698	15,356
Leather and its manufactures	**7**	**1,628**	**8**	**1,718**	**6,889**
Boots and shoes	6	1,491	7	1,581	4,012
Leather	1	137	1	137	2,877
Food and kindred products	**9**	**845**	**15**	**2,634**	**46,315**
Baking	3	347	6	688	7,499
Beverages	1	12	1	12	12
Butter	1	11	1	11	176
Canning and preserving	1	175	1	175	700
Confectionery	2	283	2	283	7,046
Slaughtering and meat packing			3	1,448	30,848
Other	1	17	1	17	34
Tobacco manufactures	**1**	**7**	**3**	**269**	**4,620**
Cigars	1	7	3	269	4,620
Paper and printing			**2**	**100**	**2,600**
Printing and publishing: Newspapers and periodicals			1	20	520
Other			1	80	2,080
Chemicals and allied products	**1**	**50**	**4**	**8,897**	**18,565**
Explosives			1	30	780
Petroleum refining	1	50	1	50	100
Rayon and allied products			1	8,800	17,600
Other			1	17	85
Rubber products	**5**	**8,295**	**6**	**8,454**	**10,936**
Rubber tires and inner tubes	3	8,003	3	8,003	9,907
Other rubber goods	2	292	3	451	1,029
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**3**	**203**	**6**	**598**	**14,759**
Broom and brush	1	28	1	28	164
Furriers and fur factories	2	175	2	175	1,075
Other			3	695	13,520

Table 1.—Strikes and Lock-Outs in December 1936, by Industry—Continued

Industry	Beginning in December		In progress during December		Man-days idle during December
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Extraction of minerals	5	6,752	10	13,409	89,520
Coal mining, anthracite	1	6,000	2	6,487	22,714
Coal mining, bituminous	3	702	5	1,832	24,366
Metalliferous mining			1	3,040	30,590
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	1	50	2	2,050	11,850
Transportation and communication	12	3,013	18	60,740	907,324
Water transportation			3	57,600	868,910
Motor-truck transportation	7	1,904	10	2,031	26,831
Motor-bus transportation	2	341	2	341	6,495
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	3	768	3	768	5,088
Trade	22	2,133	31	4,041	35,632
Wholesale	12	1,087	17	2,819	26,389
Retail	10	1,046	14	1,222	9,243
Domestic and personal service	7	366	13	2,501	26,968
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	2	209	5	249	2,489
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors			1	2,000	20,800
Laundries	4	117	6	212	3,639
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	1	40	1	40	40
Professional service	2	14	4	83	1,671
Recreation and amusement	2	14	2	14	77
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers			2	69	1,594
Building and construction	7	1,204	15	1,792	24,122
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	5	1,121	8	1,436	20,297
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	2	83	7	356	3,825
Agriculture, etc.	1	30	3	2,030	7,030
Agriculture	1	30	2	530	2,530
Fishing			1	1,500	4,500
Relief work and W. P. A.	5	340	7	654	3,514
Other nonmanufacturing industries			2	515	1,940

The geographical distribution of strikes in December (table 2) shows 21 new strikes during the month in New York, 17 in Ohio, 16 in Pennsylvania, and 11 in Michigan. These States, with the addition of California, were the ones affected by the most man-days of idleness because of strikes during the month.

More than half of the total man-days of idleness in December resulted from the eight interstate strikes in progress during the month, as shown at the end of table 2. Among these eight were the maritime strikes on the east and west coasts, the strike against the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Co. which extended into Pennsylvania, Ohio, Oklahoma, and West Virginia, and the strike against the Libby-Owens-Ford Glass Co. which extended into Illinois, Louisiana, Ohio, and West Virginia. All of these were still in progress at the end of December.

Table 2.—Strikes in December 1936, by States

State	Beginning in December		In progress during December		Man-days idle during December
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	129	73,326	253	185,560	2,079,344
Alabama	3	1,693	3	1,693	2,745
California	6	1,065	27	9,263	130,850
Colorado	2	22	2	22	81
Connecticut			2	132	1,488
Delaware	2	108	2	108	420
District of Columbia	1	10	1	10	20
Georgia	2	82	3	1,382	28,745
Idaho	2	12	2	12	90
Illinois	3	411	10	1,063	14,019
Indiana	3	810	5	1,095	8,006
Iowa	2	135	3	448	3,832
Kentucky	1	75	1	75	150
Maine	1	25	1	25	100
Maryland	1	700	2	9,500	22,500
Massachusetts	4	315	7	864	8,607
Michigan	11	16,784	14	18,744	81,534
Minnesota	9	1,340	10	1,465	18,301
Missouri	3	2,575	6	4,679	37,119
New Hampshire	1	26	1	26	312
New Jersey	5	542	12	1,515	20,842
New York	21	1,837	38	6,032	79,441
Ohio	17	18,871	29	20,912	115,571
Oregon	2	224	5	899	15,074
Pennsylvania	16	15,418	38	23,275	191,610
Rhode Island	2	167	2	167	1,281
Texas			2	106	582
Utah	1	43	2	3,083	31,106
Virginia	1	375	1	375	1,125
Washington	1	25	4	1,029	19,438
West Virginia			1	212	4,664
Wisconsin	3	2,043	8	5,239	76,799
Wyoming	1	200	1	200	200
Interstate	2	7,393	8	71,910	1,162,692

The average number of workers involved in the 129 strikes which began in December was 568. A distribution of the strikes in each industry group according to the number of workers involved is shown in table 3. More than half of the strikes involved less then 100 workers each. The six largest involved between 5,000 and 10,000 workers.

In slightly more than half of the strikes beginning in December the major issues were union-organization matters, while in 32 percent of the strikes the major issues were wages and hours. The strikes over union-organization matters included nearly three-fourths of the total number of workers involved in the 129 strikes which began in the month. The strikes over wages and hours included only 13 percent.

In the 17 strikes classified in table 4 under "other", the major issues were specific grievances or demands which could not be properly classified in any other group. Examples are delayed pay, seniority rights, increased work load, and objection to foreman.

Table 3.—Strikes Beginning in December 1936, Classified by Number of Workers Involved

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—					
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000
All industries	129	25	48	30	10	10	6
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	6		2	3		1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	6		3	2	1		
Transportation equipment	10		1		2	4	3
Nonferrous metals and their products	3				3		
Lumber and allied products	3	1	1	1			
Stone, clay, and glass products	1						1
Textiles and their products	13	2	6	3		2	
Leather and its manufactures	7		3	2	2		
Food and kindred products	9	5	1	3			
Tobacco manufactures	1	1					
Chemicals and allied products	1		1				
Rubber products	5			3		1	1
Miscellaneous manufactures	3		2	1			
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	5		1	3			1
Transportation and communication	12	2	5	3	1	1	
Trade	22	8	9	4	1		
Domestic and personal service	7	2	4	1			
Professional service	2	2					
Building and construction	7	1	5			1	
Agriculture, etc	1		1				
Relief work and W. P. A	5	1	3	1			

Table 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in December 1936

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	129	100.0	73,326	100.0
Wages and hours	41	31.8	9,808	13.4
Wage increase	28	21.7	8,890	12.2
Wage decrease	1	.8	10	(1)
Wage increase, hour decrease	12	9.3	908	1.2
Union organization	67	51.9	53,933	73.5
Recognition	7	5.4	16,952	23.1
Recognition and wages	15	11.6	11,070	15.1
Recognition, wages, and hours	31	24.0	14,977	20.4
Closed shop	4	3.1	1,449	2.0
Violation of agreement	2	1.6	6,040	8.2
Discrimination	8	6.2	3,445	4.7
Miscellaneous	21	16.3	9,585	13.1
Jurisdiction	2	1.6	34	(1)
Other	17	13.1	9,484	13.0
Not reported	2	1.6	67	.1

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Of the 253 strikes in progress in December, 153 were terminated during the month with an average duration of 22½ calendar days. While 37 percent of these strikes lasted less than a week, and nearly 60 percent were terminated in less than one-half month after they

began, eight of them had been in progress for 3 months or more. These eight strikes were comparatively small and were directed against individual firms (see table 5).

Table 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in December 1936

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	153	57	34	28	20	6	8
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	5	1	1	2			1
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	8	2	1	2	3		
Transportation equipment	13	3	3	3	3		1
Nonferrous metals and their products	4		2	1		1	
Lumber and allied products	4		1	1	2		
Stone, clay, and glass products	1				1		
Textiles and their products	17	5	6	1	1	1	3
Leather and its manufactures	4	3	1				
Food and kindred products	10	5	1	4			
Tobacco manufactures	2	1		1			
Paper and printing	1						1
Chemicals and allied products	3	1		2			
Rubber products	6	4	1	1			
Miscellaneous manufactures	5	1	2	1	1		
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	6	3			1	1	1
Transportation and communication	11	6	3	1	1		
Trade	24	12	6	4	2		
Domestic and personal service	6	1	1	1		2	1
Professional service	2	1			1		
Building and construction	9	4		2	2	1	
Agriculture, etc	3	1	1		1		
Relief work and W. P. A	7	2	3	1	1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	2	1	1				

In 43 percent of the strikes ending in December, including 24 percent of the workers involved, the settlements were negotiated directly by the employers and representatives of the organized workers. Government conciliators or labor boards assisted the employers and representatives of the workers in negotiating settlements for 31 percent of the strikes, including 46 percent of the workers. In most of these strikes, union representatives also took part.

There were 28 strikes, including 28.7 percent of the workers, which were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the employees simply returned to work without settlements or they lost their jobs when employers filled their places with new workers or went out of business. Some of these disputes, accounting for a large proportion of the workers involved, were the strikes against individual plants of the General Motors Corporation which lost their identity as individual strikes when they became a part of the widespread strike at the beginning of January.

Table 6.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in December 1936

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	153	100.0	79,140	100.0
Employers and workers directly	6	3.9	890	1.1
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	66	43.1	18,927	23.9
Government conciliators or labor boards	48	31.4	36,114	45.7
Private conciliators or arbitrators	5	3.3	489	.6
Terminated without formal settlement	28	18.3	22,720	28.7

The results of the 153 strikes which ended in December are indicated in table 7. About 46 percent of the strikes, including 31 percent of the workers, resulted in substantial gains to the workers. Twenty-six percent of the strikes, including 38 percent of the workers, resulted in partial gains or compromises, and 20 percent of the strikes, including 7 percent of the workers, resulted in little or no gains to the workers.

Table 7.—Results of Strikes Ending in December 1936

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	153	100.0	79,140	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	71	46.4	24,653	31.2
Partial gains or compromises	40	26.1	29,845	37.6
Little or no gains to workers	30	19.6	5,234	6.6
Jurisdictional or rival union settlements	5	3.3	522	.7
Indeterminate	5	3.3	18,727	23.7
Not reported	2	1.3	159	.2

Results of the strikes ending in December, in relation to the major issues involved, are shown in table 8. The workers won 59 percent of the wage-and-hour strikes, as compared with 44 percent of the union-organization strikes. They lost 12 percent of the wage-and-hour strikes and 23 percent of the strikes in which the major issues were union-organization questions. About the same proportion of the wage-and-hour strikes (26 percent) were compromised, as were the strikes over union-organization matters (28 percent).

In terms of the number of workers involved, 49 percent of the workers engaged in wage-and-hour strikes won their demands, as compared with 30 percent of the workers striking over union-organization matters. About 45 percent of the workers in the first group obtained compromise settlements, as compared with 32 percent in the latter group. Approximately 6 percent of the workers in each group obtained little or no gains. The results of union-organization strikes, which involved 32 percent of the workers, were indeterminate.

Table 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in December 1936, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issues	Totals	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdictional or rival union settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of strikes						
All issues	153	71	40	30	5	5	2
Wages and hours	42	25	11	5		1	
Wage increase	26	15	6	4		1	
Wage decrease	3	2		1			
Wage increase, hour decrease	13	8	5				
Union organization	86	38	24	20		4	
Recognition	12	2	2	6		2	
Recognition and wages	17	10	6	1			
Recognition and hours	1			1			
Recognition, wages, and hours	38	18	14	6			
Closed shop	3	3					
Violation of agreement	1	1					
Discrimination	14	4	2	6		2	
Miscellaneous	25	8	5	5	5		2
Jurisdiction	5				5		
Other	17	8	5	4			
Not reported	3			1			2
	Number of workers involved						
All issues	79,140	24,653	29,845	5,234	522	18,727	159
Wages and hours	11,817	5,781	5,282	677		77	
Wage increase	7,492	4,905	1,839	671		77	
Wage decrease	391	385		6			
Wage increase, hour decrease	3,934	491	3,443				
Union organization	57,436	17,396	18,065	3,325		18,650	
Recognition	17,706	415	93	2,298		14,900	
Recognition and wages	13,669	11,607	2,052	10			
Recognition and hours	30			30			
Recognition, wages, and hours	20,211	3,973	15,695	543			
Closed shop	543	543					
Violation of agreement	40	40					
Discrimination	5,237	818	225	444		3,750	
Miscellaneous	9,887	1,476	6,498	1,232	522		159
Jurisdiction	522				522		
Other	9,198	1,476	6,498	1,224			
Not reported	167			8			159

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor in February 1937

DURING February 1937 the Secretary of Labor, through the Conciliation Service, exercised her good offices in connection with 95 disputes, which affected a known total of 44,693 employees. Of these disputes 48 were adjusted, 2 were settled by the parties in dispute, 2 were referred to the National Labor Relations Board, 3 could not be adjusted, and 40 were still pending. The table following shows the name and location of the establishment or industry in which the dispute occurred, the nature of the dispute (whether strike, lock-out, or controversy not having reached the strike or lock-out stage), the craft or trade concerned, the cause of the dispute, its present status, the terms of settlement, the date of beginning and ending, and the number of workers directly and indirectly involved.

Labor Disputes Handled by Commissioners of Conciliation During the Month of February 1937

Name of company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craftsmen concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status and terms of settlement	Commissioner assigned	Assignment completed	Workers involved	
							Directly	Indirectly
					1937	*1937*		
Zion Industries, Inc., Waukegan, Ill.	Strike	Building employees	Working conditions	Adjusted. Agreed on collective bargaining.	Jan. 27	Feb. 3	80	-------
Early Stove Co., Dixon City, Pa.	Controversy	Stove workers	Discharges	Unclassified. Settled before arrival of commissioner.	Jan. 31	Feb. 4	5	25
Drydock workers, Oakland and San Francisco, Calif.	Strike	Dock workers	Wages, hours, and working conditions.	Adjusted. Wage rate ranging from 65 cents to $1 per hour, 40-hour week, and improved conditions.	Feb. 1	Mar. 1	446	1,152
California Cotton Mills, Oakland, Calif.	Controversy	Textile workers	Violation of recent agreement; overtime pay.	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement.	do	Feb. 7	375	35
Pennsylvania Shipyards, Beaumont, Tex.	Strike	Welders	Wages and collective bargaining.	Adjusted. Returned without change.	Jan. 30	Feb. 4	145	300
Monarch Wash Suit Co., New Bedford, Mass.	do	Clothing workers	Wage increase and union recognition.	Pending	Feb. 2	----------	500	-------
J. C. Virden Co., Cleveland, Ohio.	do	Electric-appliance workers.	Seniority rights, 40-hour week, and overtime pay.	do	Feb. 1	----------	240	85
Carpenters and metal lathers, Cranford, N. J.	do	Carpenters and metal lathers.	Jurisdiction of gypsum ceiling work.	do	Jan. 29	----------	(1)	-------
Garment makers, Philadelphia, Pa.	Controversy	Garment makers	(1)	do	do	----------	6,500	-------
Spaide Shirt Co., Butler, Pa.	Lock-out	Shirt makers	Discharges	do	Jan. 28	----------	600	-------
Grand Upholstered Furniture Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	Strike	Furniture workers	(1)	do	Jan. 23	----------	65	-------
Card writers, Oakland, Calif.	do	Machine operators	Wage increase and hours	Adjusted. Signed agreement allowing $1 per hour, 8-hour day, and 5½-day week.	Feb. 1	Feb. 20	75	-------
Kelvinator Co., Detroit, Mich.	do	Mechanics	Collective bargaining	Referred. National Labor Relations Board assumed jurisdiction.	Feb. 2	Feb. 7	150	-------
Continental Piston Ring Co., Memphis, Tenn.	Threatened strike.	Machinists	Agreement covering wages, hours, and reinstatement of those discharged.	Adjusted. Agreement providing some wage adjustments, 6 men reinstated, and further negotiations June 1.	Feb. 4	Feb. 11	53	22
Laundry workers, Huntsville, Ala.	Controversy	Laundry workers	Wages and hours	Adjusted. Compromise agreement.	Feb. 3	Feb. 15	18	-------
Kelly-Springfield Tire Co., Cumberland, Md.	Strike	Rubber workers	Wages	Adjusted. Workers vacated plant and wage negotiations continued.	Jan. 13	Feb. 2	1,800	150
Printing pressmen, Omaha, Nebr.	Threatened strike.	Printing pressmen	Wages, working conditions, and collective bargaining.	Adjusted. Signed agreement providing increases ranging from $3 to $5 per week for part of workers, and 40-hour week.	Feb. 4	Feb. 13	50	20

[1] Not yet reported.

Labor Disputes Handled by Commissioners of Conciliation During the Month of February 1937—Continued

Name of company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craftsmen concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status and terms of settlement	Commissioner assigned	Assignment completed	Workers involved: Directly	Workers involved: Indirectly
					1937	*1937*		
Wilson & Bennett Co., Chicago, Ill.	Threatened strike.	Welders	Wage increase and elimination of bonus system.	Unclassified. Conciliation not practicable.	Feb. 4	Feb. 6	40	-------
By Block Service, San Francisco, Calif.	Controversy.	Window cleaners	Alleged violation of contract	Adjusted. Signed agreement	Jan. 15	Feb. 11	(1)	-------
Hunter Boat Co., Alameda, Calif.	Strike	Shipwrights and calkers.	Wage increase and use of hiring halls.	Pending	Jan. 18	----------	35	-------
School building, Delphi, Ind	do	Building-trades workers.	Unionization of workers on Delphi job.	Adjusted. Agreed on unionization for future jobs with this contractor.	Jan. 13	Feb. 3	10	16
Rochester Democrat Chronicle, Rochester, N. Y.	Controversy.	Drivers and paper workers.	Wage increase, union recognition, and conditions.	Adjusted. Increase of 10 percent and union recognition.	Jan. 25	Feb. 4	11	25
Building laborers, Rochester, N. Y.	Strike	Laborers	do	Pending	Jan. 24	----------	250	-------
Moyer Manufacturing Co., Youngstown, Ohio.	do	Clothing workers	2 discharged	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement.	Jan. 29	Feb. 10	108	50
Model Laundry Co., Jeannette, Pa.	do	Laundry workers	Agreement covering wages and hours.	do	Feb. 6	Mar. 5	75	-------
Blue Jean Manufacturing Co., Scranton, Pa.	do	Clothing workers	Piecework rates, 40-hour week, and union recognition.	Adjusted. Increase of 10 percent	Feb. 3	Feb. 25	129	21
Warner Swasey Co., Cleveland, Ohio.	Threatened strike.	Machinists	Objection to proposed premium system.	Adjusted. Signed satisfactory agremeent.	Feb. 8	Mar. 10	800	250
Birmingham Stove & Range Co., Birmingham, Ala.	Strike	Stove workers	Wage rates and union recognition.	Adjusted. Increases ranging from 10 to 40 percent, hours shortened, and union recognition.	Feb. 9	Mar. 5	450	12
Inside laundry workers, St. Louis, Mo.	do	Laundry workers	Wages, conditions, and vacation with pay.	Adjusted. Increases and 1 week's vacation with pay.	Feb. 2	Feb. 6	35	10
Union Furniture Co., Jamestown, N. Y.	do	Furniture workers	Wage increases, 40-hour week, and overtime pay.	Adjusted. Wage increases, 40-hour week, and overtime pay.	Jan. 26	Feb. 14	360	40
National Worsted Co., Jamestown, N. Y.	do	Knitters	Wages, 40-hour week, and improved conditions.	Adjusted. Increases, 40-hour week and union recognition.	Jan. 19	Mar. 3	650	50
Western Wax Paper Co., Oakland, Calif.	Controversy.	Wax-paper workers	Wages, hours, and conditions	Adjusted. Increase of 10 cents per hour, and signed agreement.	Feb. 10	Feb. 28	100	-------
German Bakery, Kingston, Pa.	do	Bakers	Discharges for union activity	Pending	do	----------	2	45
Levenson & Zenitz, Baltimore, Md.	Strike	Upholsterers	Wages and collective bargaining	do	Feb. 11	----------	35	-------
Chromium Plating Corp., Jackson, Mich.	Threatened strike.	Polishers, buffers, and platers.	Working agreement	Adjusted. Satisfactory signed agreement.	Jan. 15	Feb. 5	28	-------
Tunnel workers, Oakland, Calif.	Controversy.	Tunnel workers	Discrimination	Pending	Feb. 25	----------	(1)	-------
Empire Level Co., Milwaukee, Wis.	Lock-out	Machinists	Locked out for union affiliation.	do	Feb. 11	----------	65	8
				Adjusted. Satisfactory agreement.	Jan. 1	Feb. 5	457	-------

L. A. Young Spring Co., Oakland, Calif.	Controversy	Metal spring and cushion makers.	Asked election of shop committee.	Adjusted. Satisfactory agreement.	Jan. 1	Feb. 5	457	-------
Kimball Piano Co., Chicago, Ill.	Lock-out	Piano workers	3 discharged for union activity	Pending	Feb. 11		400	-------
Vulcan Last Co., Portsmouth, Ohio.	Threatened strike.	Shoe workers	Discharge of union leaders	Unable to adjust	do	Feb. 21	2	-------
Detroit Harvester Co., Detroit, Mich.	do	Automobile workers	Discharges for union activity	Pending	Jan. 11		3	300
Textile bag makers, Oakland, Calif.	Strike	Textile workers	Asked increase of 25 percent, 40-hour week, and union recognition.	Adjusted. Increase of 25 percent, closed shop, 40-hour week, and overtime pay.	Feb. 4	Feb. 27	500	-------
Tippitt Woods Co., Phillipsburg, N. J.	do	Steel workers	Working conditions	Pending	Feb. 13		150	-------
Enterprise Galvanizing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Metal workers	do	do	Feb. 11		75	-------
Ry-Lock Co., San Leandro, Calif.	Lock-out	Lock makers	Collective bargaining refused	do	Feb. 13		70	8
Superior Trousers Co., Worcester, Mass.	Strike	Clothing workers	Asked wage increase and union recognition.	Adjusted. Wage increase of 10 percent and union recognition.	Feb. 8	Feb. 13	30	-------
S. & D. Dress Co., Worcester, Mass.	do	Dress workers	do	Adjusted. Wage increase of 25 percent and closed shop.	Feb. 11	Feb. 19	18	-------
Continental Gin Co., Birmingham, Ala.	do	Machinery makers	do	Pending	Feb. 15		600	50
Des Moines Railway Co., Des Moines, Iowa.	Controversy	Street-railway workers.	Jurisdictional dispute	do	Feb. 12		395	100
Rosslyn Steel & Cement Co., Rosslyn, Va.	Strike	Drivers	Wages, hours, and union recognition.	do	Jan. 28		50	-------
Matson Navigation Co., San Pedro, Calif.	Threatened strike.	Teamsters, longshoremen, and marine crafts.	Organization of drivers hauling ship cargoes.	do	Feb. 6		5,000	-------
Rhol Connolly Co., San Pedro Calif.	Strike	Tugboat workers	Wages, union recognition, and 60-hour week.	do	Feb. 14		21	-------
Lovell Manufacturing Co., Erie, Pa.	Controversy	Rubber-goods workers	Collective bargaining and signed agreement.	Adjusted. Agreed to continue negotiations for settlement.	Feb. 12	Feb. 16	540	110
Diamond Match Co., Chico, Calif.	Lock-out	Match workers	Working conditions	Pending	Feb. 15		(1)	-------
General strike of clothing workers, Connecticut.	Strike	Clothing workers	Asked wage increase of 15 percent.	Adjusted. Allowed increase of 7½ percent.	Feb. 16	Feb. 25	2,000	-------
Pile drivers, Portland, Oreg	Threatened strike.	Pile drivers	Asked increase to $1.33½ per hour.	Pending	Feb. 12		300	2,000
R. & R. Pretzel Co., Reading, Pa.	Controversy	Pretzel workers	Violation of agreement	do	Feb. 15		11	1
Hospital building, Houston, Tex.	do	Electrical workers	Jurisdiction	Referred to National Labor Relations Board.	Feb. 16	Feb. 20	5	264
Swank Plant, Johnstown, Pa	Threatened strike.	Brick and clay workers.	Discharges	Adjusted. Reinstated with pay for lost time.	do	Feb. 19	135	425
Stackpole Carbon Co., St. Marys, Pa.	Strike	Employees	Wages, union recognition, and working conditions.	Pending	Mar. 2		900	-------
Frankelite Co., Cleveland, Ohio	do	Machinists	Discharges and discrimination	do	Feb. 17		(1)	-------
Building trades, Fort Worth, Tex.	do	Carpenters and plasterers.	Jurisdiction of acoustical material installation.	Unclassified. Settled before commissioner arrived.	Feb. 8	Feb. 25	42	-------
Drug warehouses, San Francisco, Calif.	do	Warehouse workers	Asked wage increase, 40-hour week, and union recognition.	Adjusted. Allowed increase of 10 percent, 40-hour week, and union recognition.	Jan. 2	Jan. 30	150	-------

[1] Not yet reported.

Labor Disputes Handled by Commissioners of Conciliation During the Month of February 1937—Continued

Name of company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craftsmen concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status and terms of settlement	Commissioner assigned	Assignment completed	Workers involved	
							Directly	Indirectly
					1937	*1937*		
Post-office building, St. Louis, Mo.	Strike	Building-trades workers.	Wages	Pending	Feb. 19		(1)	
Biles-Coleman Lumber Co., Omak, Wash.	do	Sawmill and lumber workers.	Collective bargaining refused	do	Feb. 13		(1)	
North Brookfield Garment Co., North Brookfield, Mass.	do	Garment workers	Asked $10 per week minimum wage, union recognition, and reinstatement of 3 workers.	Adjusted. Wages and conditions submitted to arbitration.	Feb. 16 Feb. 5	Feb. 20 Feb. 19	100 150	
Edw. W. Minte Co., Washington, D. C.	Threatened strike.	Painters	Working conditions	Adjusted. Union withdrew demands.				
Laundry workers, Washington, D. C.	Controversy	Laundry workers	do	Adjusted. Conditions improved	Jan. 25	Feb. 1	13	7
Louisville Oil & Refinery Co., Louisville, Ky.	Strike	Oil workers	Wages, hours, and collective bargaining.	Unable to adjust	Mar. 2	Mar. 4	80	9
Building, Washington, D. C.	Controversy	Engineers and teamsters.	Jurisdiction of hoisting work	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement	Feb. 24	Feb. 24	10	90
Apex Building, Washington, D. C.	Strike	do	do	do	Feb. 15	do	10	90
Standard Oil Co., Neodesha, Kans.	Controversy	Employees	Equalization of wages	do	Feb. 17	Feb. 27	35	
Onyx Blouse Co., Orwigsburg, Pa.	Threatened strike.	Clothing workers	Wage increase and unionization	Pending	Feb. 16		110	
School buildings, St. Louis, Mo.	Controversy	Carpenters and plasterers.	Jurisdiction of celotex installation.	Adjusted. Jurisdiction settled	Jan. 15	Mar. 3	100	150
Welsh-Hartman Co., St. Louis, Mo.	Strike	Steel workers	Discharges	Adjusted. Part reinstated; others may be reinstated later.	Feb. 9	Feb. 19	150	15
Chas. Scribner & Sons, New York City.	Controversy	Bookbinders	Asked wage increase of 10 percent.	Pending	Feb. 10		45	45
Wholesale drug firms, Portland, Oreg.	Lock-out	Teamsters and longshoremen.	Wage increase, union recognition, and improved conditions.	do	Feb. 18		60	
Klopp Printing Co., Omaha, Nebr.	do	Pressmen	Asked union recognition	do	Feb. 20		(1)	
Vincent McCall Co., Kenosha, Wis.	Threatened strike.	Bed-spring makers	Wage increase	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement; negotiations to continue.	Jan. 15	Feb. 19	200	15
Alaskan fishing and canning, Seattle, Wash.	Controversy	Utility workmen	Union jurisdiction in question	Pending	Feb. 1		5,000	
Oil truck drivers, Canton, Ohio	Threatened strike.	Drivers	Wages, hours, and conditions	Adjusted. Drivers allowed $130 per month; $120 to those having less than 1 year's service.	Feb. 19	Mar. 4	200	
Post-office building, St. Augustine, Fla.	Controversy	Painters	Rate for painters	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement	Feb. 1	Mar. 5	12	
				Adjusted. Machinists' union	Feb. 24	Mar. 3	188	40

Joy Manufacturing Co., Franklin, Pa.	Strike	Machinists	Collective bargaining	Adjusted. Machinists' union made sole bargaining agency.	Feb. 24	Mar. 3	188	40
Copper miners, Livermore, Calif.	Controversy	Copper miners	Discharges for union affiliation	Pending	Feb. 25		(1)	
Greensboro Gas Co., Jeannette and Charleroi, Pa.	Strike	Gas workers	Asked wage increase	Adjusted. Increase of 4 cents per hour, to 45 cents, and improved conditions.	Feb. 18	Mar. 8	30	2,500
Retail fish dealers, New York City.	do	Fish workers	Wage increase, hours, and arbitration clause in agreement.	Adjusted. Agreed to arbitrate disputed questions.	Feb. 10	Feb. 26	500	
Kay Dress Co., Peckville, Pa.	do	Dress workers	Wage increase, union shop, and union recognition.	Adjusted. Strike declared ended and returned to work	Feb. 23	Feb. 25	75	
Braeburn Alloy Steel Corp., Braeburn, Pa.	do	Steel workers	(1)	Pending	Feb. 24		200	
Pennsylvania Sugar Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Sugar workers	Wage increase, closed shop, and reinstatement of discharged workers.	do	Feb. 23		700	300
Frank Sedar Department Store, Philadelphia, Pa.	Threatened strike.	Clerks	Asked union recognition	do	Feb. 20		500	
Building, Harrison, N. J.	Strike	Lathers and carpenters.	Sympathy with workers at Cranford, N. J.	Adjusted. Returned when workers at Cranford, N. J. returned.	Feb. 10	Feb. 18	8	80
Lionel Corp., Hillside, N. J.	do	Toy machine operators.	Asked wage increase and union recognition.	Adjusted. Wage increase of 15 percent to general workers and 5 cents per hour to machinists; union recognition not allowed.	Feb. 8	do	1,100	
Marble setters' helpers, St. Louis, Mo.	Threatened strike.	Marble workers	Asked wage increase	Pending	Feb. 26		33	16
Standard Oil Co., Whiting, Ind.	Controversy	Boiler-shop workers	Working conditions	do	Feb. 12		4	
Air Brush Painting Co., St. Louis, Mo.	do	Spray-machine painters.	Air-brush painters not accepted in painters' union.	Adjusted. Satisfactory settlement of union difficulty.	Feb. 22	Feb. 25	8	2
Total							35,760	8,933

[1] Not yet reported.

LABOR AGREEMENTS

Collective Agreement in Retail Trade in Great Britain [1]

A SIGNIFICANT union agreement which, it is held, "will probably have repercussions upon conditions in the rest of the retail trade" in Great Britain was concluded on February 10 between the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks, and a firm of retail merchants employing about 10,000 workers in six large cities in England and Scotland.

The principal terms of the agreement are minimum-wage rates, based on age, for the sales force; and, for all the employees of the firm, 2 weeks' vacation with pay, 3 days' holiday in the spring, and all public holidays, in addition, also on pay; payment during illness; medical and dental treatment; pensions and widows' allowances; and employee discount on goods purchased from the employing firm. Meals will be provided for employees below the age of 18, at a cost of 7s. 6d. per week. The personnel-relations machinery already operating by means of staff councils for the different stores will be continued, but the union will be represented as well. Authorization for the collection of union dues is provided in the agreement.

The minimum-wage scale for the sales force fixed in the agreement ranges from 14s. a week for both boys and girls at the age of 14 years, to 37s. 6d. for women at the age of 24, and 52s. 6d. for men at the age of 25. In addition, a commission on sales of 1d. in the pound (0.4 percent) is granted.

Although the agreement does not stipulate working hours, one clause commits the company to a consideration of the 48-hour week, and the union representative was quoted as saying that "the hours were now not much in excess of 48 per week and could, by a little later starting time, be easily reduced to 48."

Much of the significance of this agreement, which was negotiated with the active assistance of the Ministry of Labor, lies in the fact that while the distributive trades constitute a very large part of the total volume of employment in Great Britain, organization is not strong among either employers or workers. Regulation of working

[1] Based on report from Alfred Nutting, clerk, American Consulate General, London, dated Feb. 11, 1937; and Manchester Guardian, Feb. 11, 1937.

conditions is dependent more upon the enforcement of statutory provisions governing employment in retail establishments than upon joint control through collective agreements. Commenting upon the effect of the agreement just concluded, a representative of the Ministry of Labor called attention to the fact that, unlike the distributive trades, "all the productive industries were covered by agreements on some form of effective machinery." He expressed the hope that, "as a result of examples of the kind afforded by the present agreement," others would follow and that a system of joint negotiation would replace statutory regulation in the distribution trades as well.

Another outcome of the agreement is its probable effect as an organizing stimulus upon the union holding jurisdiction over workers in retail stores. The National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks reported a membership of about 49,000 at the 1936 convention of the British Trades Union Congress.[2] At the time the agreement under discussion was negotiated, the firm representative stated that union membership among the 10,000 employees of the company was "negligible." While the agreement in no sense calls for a "closed shop", the provision authorizing collection of union dues on the premises must be interpreted as tacit encouragement to organize the various establishments covered by the agreement. The union representative pointed out, as reported in the Manchester Guardian, that while many of the working conditions were already operating, "the essential difference was that those conditions were now the subject of an agreement entered into with the union, and would be the subject of negotiation should it be deemed advisable to make any alterations."

[2] British Trades Union Congress. Report of Proceedings of Sixty-eighth Annual Congress, Plymouth, 1936, p. 45.

LABOR TURN-OVER

Labor Turn-Over in Manufacturing Establishments, January 1937

AN INCREASE of 4.3 percent in the accession rate and a decrease of 11.2 percent in the lay-off rate were features of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over in manufacturing establishments for January.

The quit rate increased from 1.05 per 100 employees in December to 1.27 for January. A slight decrease was shown in the discharge rate, and the total separation rate declined from 3.41 to 3.38.

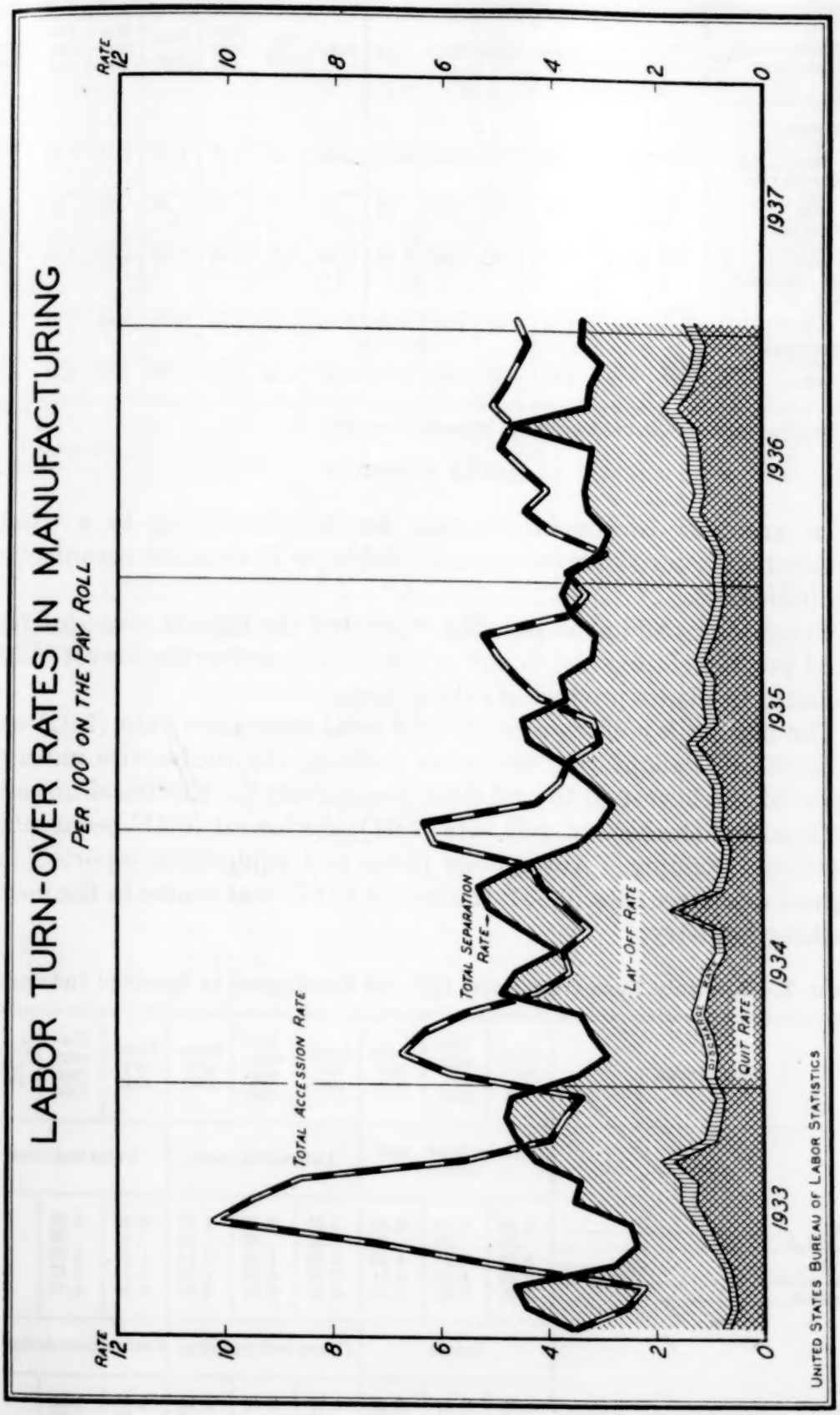
Compared with January 1936 increases were shown in the quit and discharge rates; the lay-off rate declined from 2.66 to 1.90 per 100 employees and the total separation rate decreased from 3.57 to 3.38. The accession rate increased from 3.65 in January 1936 to 4.60 in January 1937.

All Manufacturing

THE Bureau's survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments employing nearly 2,450,000 workers in January. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 16 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows, for manufacturing as a whole, the total separation rate subdivided into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1936 and for January 1937. The average monthly rates for 1936 are also presented.


LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

131768—37——9

Table 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries

Class of rate and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27												
1936	.71	0.68	0.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21												
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90												
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38												
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.72	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60												
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Sixteen Industries

In addition to the information for manufacturing as a whole, detailed labor turn-over rates are available for 16 separate manufacturing industries.

Slaughtering and meat packing registered the highest accession rate (9.36 per 100 employees) in any of the 16 industries; the lowest (1.36) occurred in plants producing rubber tires.

The highest lay-off rate (6.56) and total separation rate (7.92) was indicated in slaughtering and meat packing; the rubber-tire industry reported the lowest (0.19 and 0.88, respectively). Electrical machinery reported the highest quit rate (2.92); the lowest (0.41) occurred in petroleum refining. Automobile parts and equipment reported the highest discharge rate (0.53); the lowest (0.07) was shown in the men's clothing industry.

Table 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries

Class of rates	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	1.40	1.80	0.86	1.91	2.18	1.07	0.98	0.88	0.60
Discharge	.30	.30	.25	.53	.63	.36	.21	.20	.23
Lay-off	5.20	2.07	4.80	5.25	1.89	6.53	1.55	2.59	1.12
Total separation	6.90	4.17	5.91	7.69	4.70	7.96	2.74	3.67	1.95
Accession	3.63	9.82	2.34	5.90	9.15	3.61	6.29	6.58	4.08
	Bricks			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	0.65	0.94	0.40	1.77	1.40	1.14	1.68	1.22	1.02
Discharge	.13	.18	.24	.26	.11	.18	.30	.24	.23
Lay-off	5.18	7.88	6.06	4.16	6.43	3.63	.90	1.02	2.07
Total separation	5.96	9.00	6.70	6.19	7.94	4.95	2.88	2.48	3.32
Accession	5.82	3.79	5.18	5.96	1.93	15.40	4.67	3.53	3.77

Table 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries—Continued

Class of rates	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936	January 1937	December 1936	January 1936
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	2.92	0.86	0.61	1.03	1.13	0.66	0.82	1.32	1.05
Discharge	.17	.22	.11	.27	.31	.28	.27	.37	.15
Lay-off	.73	1.18	3.02	1.30	1.12	2.50	2.28	5.47	3.57
Total separation	3.82	2.26	3.74	2.60	2.56	3.44	3.37	7.16	4.77
Accession	4.80	3.74	2.95	6.26	5.25	3.65	5.50	3.13	5.28
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Men's clothing		
Quit	1.16	0.87	0.40	0.90	1.01	0.76	1.08	0.79	0.73
Discharge	.28	.10	.12	.09	.09	.11	.07	.06	.08
Lay-off	1.82	1.17	3.07	2.22	.54	1.37	1.80	3.55	1.57
Total separation	3.26	2.14	3.59	3.21	1.64	2.24	2.95	4.40	2.38
Accession	6.12	5.08	2.07	3.55	2.85	1.87	5.88	5.05	6.82
	Petroleum refining			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.41	0.45	0.56	0.59	0.83	0.31	1.18	1.06	1.21
Discharge	.08	.05	.09	.10	.10	.03	.27	.27	.34
Lay-off	1.05	1.52	2.90	.19	.28	1.24	5.84	5.40	4.09
Total separation	1.54	2.02	3.55	.88	1.21	1.58	7.29	6.73	5.64
Accession	3.16	1.88	3.70	1.36	2.61	2.04	8.37	5.46	8.33
	Slaughtering and meat packing								
Quit	1.10	1.45	0.69	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Discharge	.26	.32	.18	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Lay-off	6.56	11.16	6.10	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Total separation	7.92	12.93	6.97	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Accession	9.36	7.20	10.71	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR

Hourly Entrance Rates of Common Laborers in 20 Industries, July 1936

By Robert S. Billups, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics

THE average hourly entrance rate of common laborers in the United States, based on data obtained from 20 important industries, was 43.2 cents in July 1936. This is shown (see table 2) by the eleventh annual survey made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Scope of Survey

As in former years, this survey was limited to the entrance rates paid to adult male [1] common laborers. The term "common laborer" was defined in the questionnaire as signifying "a worker who performs physical or manual labor of a general character and simple nature, requiring no special training, judgment, or skill." Machine operators who have to be trained were specifically excluded from this definition. Likewise, the "entrance rate" was defined as the lowest rate paid to such common laborers when newly hired, and it was stipulated that no common laborers be included who received more than the entrance rate.[2]

The data were obtained by means of a mail questionnaire, which asked for the entrance rate or rates paid together with the number of laborers receiving each specified rate. Separate inquiries were made for white, Negro, and Mexican or other laborers. The information refers to conditions as of July 1, 1936.

The present survey covers 4,912 establishments, which reported a total of 218,135 common laborers working at the entrance rate. Classified by color, this number of employees included 178,266 (81.7 percent) whites, 34,604 (15.9 percent) Negroes, and 5,265 (2.4 percent) Mexicans or others. The coverage is satisfactorily distributed on a geographical basis.

[1] Very few females are engaged as common laborers in industry, except to do such work as dusting, cleaning, etc.

[2] For a fuller discussion of the meaning of the entrance rate of pay and a discussion of the varying meanings of the term "common labor" prevailing in industry, see article on "Entrance Rates Paid to Common Labor, July 1935" in the March 1936 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 698–99). Each questionnaire in this survey was carefully edited to insure that the plant furnishing the data conformed to the Bureau's definition of the term.

The former surveys included 11 manufacturing industries, public utilities, and general contracting. This year the list of industries covered was modified. The principal changes affected the manufacturing industries. The automobile industry, which was previously taken in toto was in this study limited to the automobile-parts branch, as no comparable data could be obtained from the automobile and body manufacturing branch. The electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies industry was also omitted, because of the relatively small number of common laborers employed, as shown by previous surveys. On the other hand, six new industries were included: Chemicals, fertilizers, glass, paints and varnishes, rubber tires and inner tubes, and soap. As a result of these changes, the total number of manufacturing industries covered was increased to 16, which gives a better representation than previously of manufacturing as a whole. The public utilities, instead of being treated as a single unit, were divided as follows: Electric light and power; electric street railways. operation, and maintenance; and manufactured and natural gas. Lastly, the general contracting industry, which formerly included building, highway, public works, and railroad construction, was reduced to embrace only building construction—by far the largest branch.

As in previous surveys, when computing the various averages for this report, the entrance rates reported were weighted by the number of common laborers receiving them in the various plants. The number of common laborers was also used in developing the wage distributions.

Variation in Entrance Rates

THE entrance rates per hour of adult males in an unskilled occupation such as common labor might be expected to fall within a relatively narrow range. However, this was not the case. Large differences exist between regions and industries. For the 20 industries combined in the country as a whole, the entrance rates varied from a low of 10 cents to a high of $1. The condensed distribution of the hourly entrance rates appears in table 1.

Disregarding a small proportion of extreme cases, it appears that the general range of common-labor entrance rates was from 22.5 cents to 62.5 cents per hour. There were 2.4 percent of all common laborers for whom lower rates were reported and 3.1 percent at higher rates. In all, half the workers earned less than 43.5 cents. The close agreement of this value with the arithmetic mean (43.2 cents) is also to be noted. While nearly one-fifth (19.9 percent) of the workers received less than 37.5 cents, more than two-thirds (67.5 percent) were concentrated in the classes of 37.5 and under 52.5 cents per hour. An eighth (12.6 percent) earned more than 52.5 cents, but of these less than half exceeded 57.5 cents.

Table 1.—Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers According to Hourly Entrance Rates, in 20 Industries, July 1936

Hourly entrance rate	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under 17.5 cents	1,716	0.8	0.8
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	3,495	1.6	2.4
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	10,285	4.7	7.1
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	13,504	6.2	13.3
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	14,459	6.6	19.9
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	56,975	26.1	46.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	44,350	20.3	66.3
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	46,005	21.1	87.4
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	16,578	7.6	95.0
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	4,223	1.9	96.9
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	2,801	1.3	98.2
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	1,030	.5	98.7
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	966	.5	99.2
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	936	.4	99.6
82.5 cents and over	812	.4	100.0
Total	218,135	100.0	

Geographical Differences in Entrance Rates

ONE reason for the relatively large variation in the hourly entrance rates is the existence of a geographical differential. This may be seen from an examination of table 2, which presents averages on a State basis for the 20 industries combined.

Table 2.—Geographic Classification of Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, in 20 Industries, by Race, July 1936

Region, geographic division, and State	Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rates				Average hourly entrance rates			
		Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other	Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other
United States	4,912	218,135	178,266	34,604	5,265	$0.432	$0.448	$0.354	$0.411
North	3,837	169,245	152,976	11,996	4,273	.461	.462	.460	.438
New England	430	9,784	9,621	134	29	.436	.436	.425	(1)
Maine	54	2,123	2,123			.416	.416		
New Hampshire	45	1,238	1,236	2		.414	.414	(1)	
Vermont	17	384	373		11	.437	.409		(1)
Massachusetts	211	3,863	3,831	32		.459	.459	(1)	
Rhode Island	31	516	506	7	3	.456	.456	(1)	(1)
Connecticut	72	1,660	1,552	93	15	.427	.427	.418	(1)
Middle Atlantic	925	41,213	37,762	3,060	391	.452	.451	.466	.441
New York	354	13,381	12,762	586	54	.456	.456	.448	.404
New Jersey	151	5,562	4,895	579	88	.452	.452	.449	.476
Pennsylvania	420	22,249	20,105	1,895	249	.450	.447	.477	.436
East North Central	1,359	70,509	62,294	7,133	1,082	.458	.458	.457	.483
Ohio	443	17,337	14,193	3,131	13	.461	.461	.460	(1)
Indiana	187	14,987	13,251	1,050	686	.455	.455	.438	.482
Illinois	300	16,937	14,808	1,801	328	.491	.493	.474	.494
Michigan	271	13,752	12,649	1,059	44	.435	.434	.437	(1)
Wisconsin	158	7,496	7,393	92	11	.430	.428	.509	(1)
West North Central	426	16,464	14,814	1,357	293	.446	.445	.458	.447
Minnesota	77	4,927	4,840	51	36	.466	.466	.472	(1)
Iowa	92	2,845	2,766	49	30	.429	.429	(1)	(1)
Missouri	112	3,592	2,937	620	35	.437	.436	.445	(1)
North Dakota	17	226	225		1	.416	.416		(1)
South Dakota	23	259	259			.411	.411		
Nebraska	32	1,479	1,262	157	60	.454	.452	.472	.465
Kansas	73	3,136	2,525	480	131	.443	.437	.471	.449

[1] Less than 50 employees; no average computed.

Table 2.—Geographic Classification of Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers in 20 Industries, by Race, July 1936—Continued

Region, geographic division, and State	Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rates				Average hourly entrance rates			
		Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other	Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other
Mountain	155	5,515	5,207	18	310	$0.463	$0.466	(1)	$0.410
Montana	18	1,032	1,032	-------	-------	.524	.524	-------	-------
Idaho	15	1,465	1,459	-------	6	.496	.496	-------	(1)
Wyoming	10	114	114	-------	-------	.498	.498	-------	-------
Colorado	35	1,685	1,580	14	111	.434	.435	(1)	.411
New Mexico	16	437	316	2	119	.314	.294	(1)	.369
Arizona	26	218	142	2	74	.484	.494	(1)	.465
Utah	29	506	506	-------	-------	.442	.442	-------	-------
Nevada	6	58	58	-------	-------	.501	.501	-------	-------
Pacific	542	25,740	23,278	294	2,168	.501	.509	$0.498	.417
Washington	150	8,460	8,280	7	173	.526	.527	(1)	.502
Oregon	95	5,241	5,182	2	57	.520	.520	(1)	.466
California	297	12,039	9,816	285	1,938	.475	.487	.497	.408
South	1,075	48,890	25,290	22,608	992	.334	.368	.297	.296
South Atlantic	524	20,563	11,171	9,385	7	.344	.374	.307	(1)
Delaware	31	972	755	217	-------	.394	.401	.368	-------
Maryland	76	2,306	1,234	1,072	-------	.370	.374	.365	-------
District of Columbia	26	2,151	630	1,501	-------	.465	.459	.468	-------
Virginia	75	2,937	1,492	1,445	-------	.314	.321	.307	-------
West Virginia	79	4,399	4,235	157	7	.422	.422	.420	(1)
North Carolina	65	1,819	651	1,147	-------	.262	.302	.240	-------
South Carolina	39	1,554	629	925	-------	.255	.291	.231	-------
Georgia	75	1,763	442	1,321	-------	.268	.319	.251	-------
Florida	58	2,703	1,103	1,600	-------	.265	.306	.237	-------
East South Central	189	8,401	3,644	4,730	27	.311	.333	.295	(1)
Kentucky	54	1,566	1,170	396	-------	.386	.388	.380	-------
Tennessee	56	2,565	1,053	1,512	-------	.305	.315	.298	-------
Alabama	59	2,662	760	1,875	27	.290	.298	.289	(1)
Mississippi	20	1,608	661	947	-------	.281	.301	.267	-------
West South Central	362	19,926	10,475	8,493	958	.333	.373	.288	.299
Arkansas	38	2,773	1,218	1,555	-------	.255	.269	.243	-------
Louisiana	76	6,332	2,558	3,760	14	.299	.349	.264	(1)
Oklahoma	52	2,640	2,226	375	39	.377	.384	.339	(1)
Texas	196	8,181	4,473	2,803	905	.372	.409	.338	.296

[1] Less than 50 employees; no average computed.

Considerable attention has been given in recent years to the existence of separate wage areas in the country. As regards the average hourly entrance rates by States, these areas roughly fall in two distinct regions, which may be designated as the northern and southern territories. The northern region is usually regarded as embracing the following census geographic divisions: New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, Mountain, and Pacific. The average for the entire northern territory amounted to 46.1 cents per hour, the range by States being from 52.6 cents in Washington to 41.1 cents in South Dakota, providing there is excluded the low figure of 31.4 cents for New Mexico. The southern region includes the following geographic divisions: South Atlantic, East South Central, and West South Central. The average for the southern territory as a whole was 33.4 cents, and the figures by States ranged from 46.5 cents in the District of Columbia to 25.5 cents in Arkansas and South Carolina. There was a differential of 12.7 cents in the

northern average over the southern average; and, if the District of Columbia and West Virginia are excluded, the highest average for any other State in the southern territory was smaller than the lowest State average in the northern territory exclusive of New Mexico.

An examination of the data by States, however, indicates that the census geographic divisions, although they may be used roughly to separate the country into northern and southern territories, do not in themselves generally coincide with the wage areas as based on entrance rates. There was considerable variation in the State averages within each geographic division. To obtain relatively homogeneous wage areas, a regrouping of the States is necessary.

In the North, the highest State averages of entrance rates, or those falling within a range from 47.5 to 52.6 cents, were found in the Far West, covering all of the Pacific and most of the Mountain States. Among these States, Washington, Oregon, and Montana averaged 52 cents or more. Nevada, Idaho, and Wyoming averaged about 50 cents.

An even more homogeneous wage area consists of a belt of States extending east from Illinois to the Atlantic coast. Included in this territory are Indiana (45.5 cents), Ohio (46.1 cents), Pennsylvania (45.0 cents), New Jersey (45.2 cents), New York (45.6 cents), Massachusetts (45.9 cents), and Rhode Island (45.6 cents). While the State average for Illinois was 49.1 cents and that for New York only 45.6 cents, Illinois should be included with this group of States. The high rate in Illinois was due to the heavy representation, in the sample, for Chicago. In New York the sample was better distributed throughout the State. Rates in New York City averaged slightly higher than Chicago rates (see table 5). The average rate in establishments reporting from Connecticut (42.7) was lower than that for the surrounding States. Rates in northern New England were also lower, being lowest in New Hampshire (41.4) and Maine (41.6).

With a few notable exceptions, the remaining Northern States, or those located principally in the central part of the continent, had averages of approximately 43 or 44 cents. In this category were included Michigan (43.5 cents), Wisconsin (43.0 cents), Iowa (42.9 cents), Missouri (43.7 cents), Kansas (44.3 cents), Colorado (43.4 cents), and Utah (44.2 cents). The States with a higher wage level were Minnesota (46.6 cents) and Nebraska (45.4 cents), while those with lower averages were North Dakota (41.6 cents), South Dakota (41.1 cents), and especially New Mexico (31.4 cents).

In the southern territory, the lowest-paid area embraced the States of North Carolina (26.2 cents), South Carolina (25.5 cents), Georgia (26.8 cents), and Florida (26.5 cents). The State of Arkansas, although not contiguous territory, also had a low average (25.5 cents).

Adjoining the above States, there is another belt with a somewhat higher wage level. This area consisted of Virginia (31.4 cents), Tennessee (30.5 cents), Alabama (29.0 cents), Mississippi (28.1 cents), and Louisiana (29.9 cents).

The highest wage level in the South, however, is found, on the one hand, in the Southwestern States of Oklahoma (37.7 cents) and Texas (37.2 cents), and, on the other hand, in the so-called border States of Kentucky (38.6 cents), West Virginia (42.2 cents), Maryland (37.0 cents), District of Columbia (46.5 cents), and Delaware (39.4 cents).

The contrast between the northern and southern regions, however, is even more striking, upon analysis of the wage distributions shown in table 3. In the North, the concentration occurred in the classes of 37.5 and under 52.5 cents per hour, with 78.2 percent of the laborers falling within that range. Only 7.0 percent received less than 37.5 cents, thus leaving 14.8 percent earning 52.5 cents and over. On the other hand, the concentration in the southern region was in the classes of 22.5 and under 42.5 cents, the number of laborers found within these limits forming 73.8 percent of the total. There were 10.4 percent receiving less than 22.5 cents, while 15.8 percent were paid 42.5 cents and above. Comparing the two distributions further, it is found that only 0.5 percent of the laborers in the North earned under 27.5 cents, as against 30.0 percent in the South. Moreover, while the number receiving less than 37.5 cents was only 7.0 percent in the North, it formed 64.9 percent in the South. Taking the other side of the distributions, those paid 47.5 cents and over constituted 40.9 percent in the North, as compared with only 8.3 percent in the South. Lastly, the percentages earning 57.5 cents and over were 5.6 percent in the North and only 2.4 percent in the South.

Table 3.—Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers According to Hourly Entrance Rates, in 20 Industries, by Region, July 1936

Hourly entrance rate	North				South			
	All	White	Negro	Mexican and other	All	White	Negro	Mexican and other
Under 17.5 cents	[1]	[1]	----	----	3.4	1.2	5.8	6.3
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	0.1	0.1	0.1	----	7.0	3.7	10.7	5.8
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	.4	.4	.5	----	19.6	12.5	27.2	26.9
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	2.2	2.0	1.2	10.2	20.1	14.8	25.6	32.2
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	4.3	4.1	5.8	6.9	14.8	19.8	9.4	11.3
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	28.1	28.4	26.4	24.0	19.3	23.2	15.4	8.6
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	24.0	23.9	27.7	17.5	7.5	11.9	2.7	5.4
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	26.1	25.9	25.8	34.9	3.8	6.4	.9	3.4
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	9.2	9.6	5.4	4.2	2.1	3.1	1.1	.1
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	1.8	1.7	4.0	.6	2.3	3.3	1.2	----
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	1.6	1.7	1.2	1.4	.1	.1	[1]	----
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	.6	.6	.5	.1	----	----	----	----
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	.6	.6	.3	----	----	----	----	----
77.5 and under 82.5	.5	.5	.9	.2	----	----	----	----
82.5 cents and over	.5	.5	.2	----	----	----	----	----
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Extent of Color Differentials

THE average hourly entrance rates reported for the United States as a whole were 44.8 cents per hour for white common laborers and 35.4 cents for Negroes.

This differential reflects in part a relatively high concentration of Negro common laborers in low-wage areas of the country. Thus in the North, where average hourly entrance rates for common labor were 46.1 cents per hour, only 7.1 percent of the common laborers were Negroes. In the South Atlantic and South Central States, where the average was 33.4 cents, 46.2 percent of the common laborers were Negroes. Finally, it will be recalled that wages averaged approximately 26 cents in the seaboard States extending from North Carolina to Florida. In these States, 64 percent of the common laborers were Negroes.

In all sections of the country the percentages of Negroes reported as employed in common labor was greater than the percentage which the Negroes bore to the total population. Thus, in the Northern States Negroes constituted about 3 percent of the population and about 7 percent of the reported common labor. In the South Atlantic and South Central States, Negroes constituted slightly less than a quarter of the population and almost half of the reported common labor. Finally, in the southern seaboard States from North Carolina to Florida, they were about one-third of the population and nearly two-thirds of the reported common labor. In all sections of the country custom or convenience lead to the employment of a relatively large proportion of Negroes in common labor.[3]

In the North there was generally no difference between the rates paid to white and to colored common laborers. The respective averages were 46.2 cents and 46.0 cents per hour. Insofar as differences existed in the State averages, they appeared to be due to the accidents of location. Higher State averages for Negroes were found quite as often as the reverse. There were 913 establishments (with 76,133 workers at entrance rates) in which both white and colored common laborers were employed. In general, both groups received the same rate of pay. This was true in 772 establishments with 59,456 laborers. In 86 plants with 9,863 workers, white common laborers received a higher entrance rate, but in 55 plants with 6,814 workers the reverse situation obtained.

[3] In the North there were 3,837 establishments with 169,245 employees reporting entrance rates to the Bureau. Of these, 2,877 establishments with 92,529 common laborers employed exclusively white common labor. There were only 29 establishments with 469 employees in the northern sample that had Negro labor exclusively. The large number employing no Negroes is probably to be accounted for by the relatively small percentage of Negroes in the general population in numerous localities. Thus, in the New England States and in the Mountain and Pacific States Negroes constituted only about 1 percent of the population in each of the several regions. The percentage of Negroes employed as common laborers was also small, but it was larger than the proportion which they bore to the total population.

For the various groups of Southern States this situation must be analyzed in greater detail. The average entrance rate for white common laborers was 36.8 cents per hour, as against 29.7 cents for Negro common laborers. As has already been noted, part of this difference is to be accounted for by the relatively greater concentration of the latter group in the States where the lowest earnings prevailed. In some States the differences between the earnings of white and colored common laborers were very small. This was particularly true in the case of Maryland, the District of Columbia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and Alabama. In all of these, except Alabama and Virginia, the difference in the average rates was less than 1 cent an hour. In Arkansas, Delaware, Mississippi, and Oklahoma there was a differential of 2.6 to 4.5 cents. In the seaboard States from North Carolina to Florida and in Texas, white common laborers averaged 6 to 7 cents an hour more than Negroes. In Louisiana the differential amounted to 8.5 cents.

Considering the South Atlantic and South Central States as a whole, the general rule appears to be that both white and colored common laborers are employed. This was the case in 504 establishments with 35,444 laborers at entrance rates out of a total of 1,075 establishments with 48,890 laborers.[4] In 341 of these plants, with 21,501 laborers, both groups were paid the same entrance rate. There were, however, 142 plants with 12,431 employees where a distinction was made in entrance rates, the higher wages being paid to white workers.[5] Such occasional assignment of different rates to the work done by white and colored laborers accounts in part for the differential, as does also the fact that the establishments employing exclusively Negro labor tend to be in low-wage industries.

Entrance Rates by Size of City

A THIRD factor responsible for the relative large variation in the entrance rates is the size of city. As in the case of color, this factor also plays an important part in connection with geographical differences in entrance rates. The extent to which the average hourly entrance rate varied according to the size of city may be seen from table 4.

[4] There were also 314 establishments with 8,736 workers that employed white persons exclusively and 247 plants with 4,577 laborers that employed Negroes exclusively.

[5] There were also 21 plants with 1,512 common laborers where the opposite was true.

Table 4.—Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, in 20 Industries, by Size of City, July 1936

Size of city	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	Average hourly entrance rate
United States	218,135	$0.432
500,000 and over	41,292	.489
100,000 and under 500,000	41,176	.428
50,000 and under 100,000	17,200	.414
25,000 and under 50,000	17,021	.418
10,000 and under 25,000	27,508	.431
Less than 10,000	70,898	.413
City not reported	3,040	----
North	169,245	.461
500,000 and over	39,872	.493
100,000 and under 500,000	26,706	.466
50,000 and under 100,000	11,591	.447
25,000 and under 50,000	12,863	.440
10,000 and under 25,000	23,678	.450
Less than 10,000	52,583	.448
City not reported	1,952	----
South	48,890	.334
500,000 and over	1,420	.376
100,000 and under 500,000	14,470	.357
50,000 and under 100,000	5,609	.343
25,000 and under 50,000	4,158	.352
10,000 and under 25,000	3,830	.315
Less than 10,000	18,315	.313
City not reported	1,088	----

Broadly described, wages in northern cities with 100,000 and under 500,000 were 2.7 cents per hour less than in cities with more than 500,000, and 1.9 cents more than in cities with less than 100,000. Among the various classes of smaller cities in the North, there were no clearly defined differences in entrance rates, the average for this group amounting to 44.7 cents per hour. In the South, entrance rates did not show any clearly defined differences among the several classes with a population of 25,000 and under 500,000. The entrance rate for this group of cities, which averaged 35.4 cents, was 2.2 cents less than in Baltimore, the only city with more than 500,000 population. The differential, however, was not one of size but of location. On the other hand, the entrance rate in cities of 25,000 to 500,000 averaged 4.1 cents more than in cities with less than 25,000. The latter group of cities had an average entrance rate of 31.3 cents per hour.

The fact that the largest cities had the highest average entrance rates per hour also explains the variation in the data within the geographical divisions. The average hourly entrance rates in 117 individual cities, each of which had a sufficient number of firms and laborers reported to justify the computation of an average, appear in table 5.

Table 5.—Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, in 20 Industries, by City, July 1936

State and city	Population in 1930	Coverage		Average hourly entrance rate
		Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	
Alabama:				
Birmingham	259,678	21	1,104	$0.308
Montgomery	66,079	5	57	.249
Arizona:				
Phoenix	48,118	8	53	.496
Arkansas:				
Little Rock	81,679	5	287	.246
California:				
Los Angeles	1,238,048	95	3,499	.458
Oakland	284,063	22	947	.504
Sacramento	93,750	13	244	.561
San Diego	147,995	7	319	.506
San Francisco	634,394	35	1,479	.457
Colorado:				
Denver	287,861	21	1,239	.438
Connecticut:				
Bridgeport	146,716	8	225	.472
Hartford	164,072	10	180	.431
New Haven	162,655	14	471	.417
Waterbury	99,902	3	50	.440
Delaware:				
Wilmington	106,597	20	764	.403
Dist. of Col.:				
Washington	486,869	26	2,131	.465
Florida:				
Jacksonville	129,549	10	455	.222
Miami	110,637	13	311	.346
St. Petersburg	40,425	4	31	.289
Tampa	101,161	6	124	.268
Georgia:				
Atlanta	270,366	20	670	.286
Savannah	85,024	12	297	.294
Illinois:				
Chicago	3,376,438	143	10,096	.511
Decatur	57,510	5	124	.435
Peoria	104,969	11	320	.486
Rockford	85,864	7	200	.400
Indiana:				
Evansville	102,249	9	151	.413
Fort Wayne	114,946	9	268	.415
Gary	100,426	6	1,101	.468
Indianapolis	364,161	31	943	.398
South Bend	104,193	9	687	.539
Iowa:				
Des Moines	142,559	5	113	.387
Sioux City	79,183	6	617	.478
Kansas:				
Kansas City	121,857	10	1,511	.473
Wichita	111,110	14	378	.430
Kentucky:				
Louisville	307,745	22	459	.388
Louisiana:				
New Orleans	458,762	17	668	.288
Shreveport	76,655	12	376	.307
Maine:				
Portland	70,810	9	202	.399
Maryland:				
Baltimore	804,874	41	1,420	.376
Massachusetts:				
Boston	781,188	23	576	.466
Brockton	63,797	4	29	.486
Cambridge	113,643	5	95	.520
Lynn	102,320	8	176	.543
New Bedford	112,597	4	31	.365
Pittsfield	49,677	5	35	.440
Springfield	149,900	7	47	.450
Worcester	195,311	10	168	.461
Michigan:				
Detroit	1,568,662	83	4,443	.483
Flint	156,492	5	105	.480
Grand Rapids	168,592	15	392	.404
Minnesota:				
Duluth	101,463	8	73	$0.423
Minneapolis	464,356	19	350	.451
St. Paul	271,606	17	956	.528
Mississippi:				
Jackson	48,282	5	104	.275
Missouri:				
Kansas City	399,746	14	483	.469
St. Louis	821,960	51	1,544	.434
Nebraska:				
Lincoln	75,933	5	68	.367
Omaha	214,006	14	1,268	.469
New Hampshire:				
Nashua	31,463	3	27	.400
New Jersey:				
Camden	118,700	5	311	.459
Elizabeth	114,589	5	64	.570
Jersey City	316,715	11	389	.460
Newark	442,337	21	422	.454
Paterson	138,513	3	58	.407
Trenton	123,356	5	121	.426
New Mexico:				
Albuquerque	26,570	3	234	.249
New York:				
Albany	127,412	3	75	.400
Buffalo	573,076	24	1,239	.429
New York	6,930,446	85	3,628	525
Rochester	328,132	9	526	.445
Schenectady	95,692	5	179	.466
Syracuse	209,326	9	147	.436
Utica	101,740	6	80	.407
North Carolina:				
Asheville	50,193	3	69	.265
North Dakota:				
Fargo	28,619	7	60	.418
Ohio:				
Akron	255,040	19	554	.475
Canton	104,906	12	196	.457
Cincinnati	451,160	37	1,823	.452
Cleveland	900,429	87	3,237	.547
Columbus	290,564	20	1,085	.409
Dayton	200,982	27	476	.445
Toledo	290,718	29	1,268	.481
Youngstown	170,002	12	713	.456
Zanesville	36,440	5	86	.462
Oklahoma:				
Oklahoma City	185,389	8	1,066	.375
Tulsa	141,258	13	300	.400
Oregon:				
Portland	301,815	33	1,447	.552
Pennsylvania:				
Erie	115,967	17	589	.406
Philadelphia	1,950,961	63	2,730	.479
Pittsburgh	669,817	46	5,351	.472
Reading	111,171	8	546	.401
Scranton	143,433	7	523	.387
Rhode Island:				
Providence	252,981	12	159	.477
South Carolina:				
Charleston	62,265	14	396	.220
South Dakota:				
Sioux Falls	33,362	3	44	.400
Tennessee:				
Chattanooga	119,798	11	477	.313
Knoxville	105,802	9	237	.305
Memphis	253,143	9	1,006	.287
Nashville	153,866	8	447	.344
Texas:				
Dallas	260,475	23	945	.365
El Paso	102,421	6	137	.353
Fort Worth	163,447	15	655	.412

Table 5.—Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, in 20 Industries, by City, July 1936—Continued

State and city	Population in 1930	Coverage		Average hourly entrance rate	State and city	Population in 1930	Coverage		Average hourly entrance rate
		Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rate				Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	
Texas—Contd.					West Virginia:				
Houston	292,352	26	1,447	$0.378	Charleston	60,408	8	477	$0.449
San Antonio	231,542	12	300	.309	Wheeling	61,659	15	170	.416
Utah:					Wisconsin:				
Salt Lake City	140,267	8	170	.432	Eau Claire	26,287	5	314	.404
Virginia:					Green Bay	37,415	3	145	.444
Norfolk	129,710	8	247	.270	Milwaukee	578,249	46	2,000	.527
Richmond	182,929	12	516	.315	Wyoming:				
Washington:					Casper	16,619	4	66	.500
Seattle	365,583	26	719	.577					
Spokane	115,415	13	833	.490					
Tacoma	106,817	13	349	.531					

Entrance Rates by Industry

A FOURTH reason for the relatively large variation in the entrance rates is found in connection with the different industries covered. The average hourly entrance rates by industry are shown in table 6.

As regards the individual industries, the highest average entrance rate appears in petroleum refining, where it was 52.5 cents per hour. Close to this figure is that of building construction, which amounted to 50.9 cents. The fertilizer industry showed the lowest average hourly entrance rate, namely 29.6 cents. In the remaining industries, the average ranged from 46.6 cents in automobile parts to 37.9 cents in brick, tile, and terra cotta. In addition to petroleum refining and building construction, the industries whose average exceeded that for all industries combined (43.2 cents) were automobile parts, slaughtering and meat packing, iron and steel, rubber tires and inner tubes, chemicals, cement, glass, manufactured and natural gas, and paints and varnishes, while those whose averages were below that were, in addition to fertilizer, electric light and power, foundry and machine-shop products, electric street railways, soap, leather, paper and pulp, lumber, and brick, tile and terra cotta. It will also be seen that in each industry the figure in the North is considerably higher than that in the South, the differential varying from 1.1 cents in glass to 23.9 cents in lumber.

In the 16 manufacturing industries combined, the average hourly entrance rate amounted to 42.4 cents, which is only slightly lower than the average of 42.9 cents shown for the three industries in public utilities. Both of these figures are considerably lower than that of 50.9 cents for building construction.

Table 6.—Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Region and Industry, July 1936

Industry	Coverage		Average hourly entrance rates of common laborers			Average hourly earnings of all wage earners[1]
	Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	Total	North	South	
Manufacturing	3,387	173,430	$0.424	$0.451	$0.326	$0.572
Automobile parts	112	3,111	.466	.467	[2]	[2]
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	249	8,025	.379	.405	.277	.451
Cement	91	3,915	.440	.476	.347	.580
Chemicals	125	3,950	.441	.493	.339	.664
Fertilizers	222	3,455	.296	.389	.256	.386
Foundry and machine-shop products	681	21,283	.425	.432	.363	.596
Glass	101	8,081	.438	.440	.429	.607
Iron and steel	219	28,796	.451	.457	.395	.669
Leather	149	4,934	.422	.444	.360	.561
Lumber (sawmills)	305	27,713	.380	.463	.224	.465
Paints and varnishes	188	3,209	.435	.443	.368	.599
Paper and pulp	530	31,691	.413	.434	.340	.538
Petroleum refining	156	7,166	.525	.563	.485	.830
Rubber tires and inner tubes	28	1,362	.447	.447	[2]	.875
Slaughtering and meat packing	188	15,510	.456	.468	.356	.559
Soap	43	1,229	.422	.422	[2]	.615
Public utilities	875	24,968	.429	.466	.337	[3]
Electric light and power	463	11,522	.431	.472	.326	[4] .785
Electric street railways, operation and maintenance	297	9,874	.423	.457	.326	.639
Manufactured and natural gas	115	3,572	.437	.476	.379	[4] .785
Building construction	650	19,737	.509	.552	.387	.840

[1] Based on reports on employment and pay rolls collected by the Bureau.
[2] Less than 50 employees; no average computed.
[3] Not available.
[4] For electric light and power and manufactured and natural gas combined.

Table 6 also compares the average hourly entrance rate of common laborers with the average hourly earnings of all wage earners in each of the industries covered (except automobile parts). It will be seen that the extent to which the latter exceeds the former varies considerably from one industry to another. This variation is due largely to the differences in the proportion of common laborers found in each industry. Thus, the average entrance rate per hour of common laborers is very close to the average hourly earnings of all wage earners in those industries in which a relatively large proportion of common laborers are found, such as brick, tile, and terra cotta, lumber, and fertilizers. On the other hand, in the industries with a relatively smaller proportion of common laborers, the average entrance rate per hour is considerably lower than the average hourly earnings of all workers. This is true of such industries as rubber tires and inner tubes, petroleum refining, chemicals, iron and steel, and soap.

Trend of Entrance Rates, 1926 to 1936

DATA on average hourly entrance rates of common labor are available annually for a number of industries from 1926 to 1936, inclusive.[1] As regards manufacturing, figures for each of the above years exist for the following industries: Brick, tile, and terra cotta; cement; foundry and machine-shop products; iron and steel; leather; lumber (sawmills); paper and pulp; petroleum refining; and slaughtering and meat packing. If these nine industries may be regarded as representative of manufacturing as a whole, it is possible to compute a combined average for the latter over the entire period. Furthermore, by combining the averages for manufacturing as a whole with those for public utilities (electric light and power, street railways, and manufactured and natural gas) and building construction, one may trace the changes in an all-around average during the 11 years.

According to table 7, the highest average entrance rate, except for 1936, for all industries (43.2 cents) was paid in 1929. This figure declined gradually until it reached a low of 33.3 cents in 1933, which represents a decrease of 9.9 cents since the peak. The recovery in the average entrance rate per hour after 1933 increased the figure to 43.4 cents in 1936.

Table 7.—Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, in 13 Industries, by Industry Group, 1926 to 1936

Year (July)	All industries covered	Manufacturing industries covered	Public utilities	Building construction [1]
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
1926	42.6	40.1	42.0	47.1
1927	42.4	39.9	39.8	48.2
1928	42.8	40.2	42.9	47.4
1929	43.2	40.7	42.8	48.3
1930	42.9	40.5	44.6	47.0
1931	40.3	38.3	44.6	42.6
1932	35.5	31.8	41.5	39.9
1933	33.3	30.5	38.7	38.3
1934	42.0	40.7	41.8	45.5
1935	43.0	41.5	42.0	48.1
1936	43.4	42.5	43.7	50.9

[1] For the years 1926 to 1935, inclusive, the figures cover a small amount of construction outside of the building industry.

Similar fluctuations took place in the averages covering both the manufacturing industries and building construction. In both cases, during the period from 1926 to 1934, the peak was reached in 1929. In public utilities, however, the situation was different. Not only was the peak there reached as late as 1930–31, but the reduction between those years and 1933, as well as the increase since that time, was less pronounced. In other words, the average entrance rate per hour in public utilities has shown itself to be relatively more

[1] It should be remembered that these figures are not strictly comparable from year to year, the data not being based on identical establishments. (See footnote, p. 706, March 1936 issue of Monthly Labor Review.) Nevertheless, the data may be used to trace the general trend in the averages during the entire period.

steady, which may be attributed to the favored economic position enjoyed by this industry group.[7]

Owing to the great emphasis placed during the last few years upon minimum wages in industry, it is interesting to compare the gains in average hourly entrance rates of common laborers with those in average hourly earnings of all employees. The data for such a comparison will be found in table 8. It will be seen that the greatest advance in all cases occurred between July 1933 and July 1934, or the period during which most of the codes were formulated, with small increases being shown for each of the 2 succeeding years. Taking all industries, the gains between the average hourly entrance rates of common laborers and the average hourly earnings of all employees are very close. The same thing applies to the manufacturing industries. In public utilities, however, the gains between July 1933 and July 1935 in average hourly earnings of all employees were somewhat larger as compared with the average hourly entrance rates of common laborers. On the other hand, between July 1935 and July 1936, common laborers in this industry group showed an increase in average hourly entrance rates, as compared with the slight decrease in the average hourly earnings of all employees. As regards building construction, such a comparison is only possible for the 2 years between July 1934 and July 1936, which shows that the increase in average hourly entrance rates of common laborers has outstripped that found in the average hourly earnings of all employees.

Table 8.—Percentage of Change in Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers and of All Employees, by Industry Group, 1933 to 1936

Industry	Average hourly entrance rates of common laborers			Average hourly earnings of all employees		
	July 1933 to July 1934	July 1934 to July 1935	July 1935 to July 1936	July 1933 to July 1934	July 1934 to July 1935	July 1935 to July 1936
All industries	+26.1	+2.4	+0.9	+28.6	+2.2	+1.0
Manufacturing	+33.4	+2.0	+2.4	+34.2	+2.3	+1.0
Public utilities	+8.0	+.5	+4.0	+12.8	+1.5	−.1
Building construction [1]	+18.8	+5.7	+5.8	(2)	+2.9	+2.9

[1] The figures prior to 1936 cover a small amount of construction outside of the building industry.
[2] Not available.

In view of the abolition of the codes under the National Recovery Administration in May 1935, it is interesting to note in detail the changes that have occurred in average hourly entrance rates of common laborers between July 1935 and July 1936. As will be seen from

[7] The 1936 averages in manufacturing, public utilities, and building construction are higher than those respectively in 1929. On the other hand, the average for all industries is somewhat lower in 1936 as compared with 1929. This apparent inconsistency is due to differences in weighting between the 2 years, important shifts having taken place in 1936 as regards the number of laborers receiving entrance rates.

table 9, conspicuous gains took place in lumber (6.7 percent), foundry and machine-shop products (6.3 percent), and iron and steel (2.3 percent). Leather, paper and pulp, and petroleum refining showed slight gains of less than 1 percent, while brick, tile, and terra cotta, slaughtering and meat packing, and cement reported decreases of less than 1 percent. The increase for all manufacturing industries amounted to 2.4 percent, which may be contrasted with 4.0 percent for public utilities and 5.8 percent for building construction, the gain for all industries combined being 0.9 percent.

Table 9.—Changes in Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers and in Average Hourly Earnings of All Employees, by Industry, 1935 to 1936

Industry	Average hourly entrance rates of common laborers			Percentage change, average hourly earnings, all employees, July 1935 to July 1936
	July 1935 (cents)	July 1936 (cents)	Percentage change	
All industries covered	43.0	43.4	+0.9	+1.0
Manufacturing	41.5	42.5	+2.4	+1.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	38.2	37.9	−.8	−1.6
Cement	44.3	44.0	−.7	+3.0
Foundry and machine-shop products	40.0	42.5	+6.3	+.3
Iron and steel	44.1	45.1	+2.3	+2.0
Leather	41.9	42.2	+.7	+1.6
Lumber (sawmills)	35.6	38.0	+6.7	+3.6
Paper and pulp	41.1	41.3	+.5	+.9
Petroleum refining	52.2	52.5	+.6	+1.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	45.7	45.6	−.2	−1.3
Public utilities	42.0	43.7	+4.0	−.1
Building construction	[1] 48.1	50.9	+5.8	+2.9

[1] The 1935 figure covers a small amount of construction outside of the building industry.

Earnings and Hours in Cigar Industry, March 1936 [1]

AVERAGE hourly earnings of all employees in the cigar industry amounted to 37.1 cents in March 1936. With an average workweek of 34.8 hours, their average weekly earnings were $12.94. These facts are shown by a detailed survey of wages, hours, and working conditions recently completed by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. This article presents a summary of the principal findings of that survey. A complete report will be published later.

Scope of Survey

THE data obtained in this survey generally covered a pay-roll period during the month of March 1936, at the time when production in the industry was in preparation for the Easter demand for cigars.

The cigar industry has been, from its earliest days, widely dispersed among the various States. In making this survey the Bureau covered a wide territory, from New England to Florida and west to and including the Mississippi Valley, thus leaving out only a few of the outlying western districts that are of limited importance.

The main part of the survey, which was made on a sample basis, was limited to establishments with 20 or more employees. The sample included 96 plants and 15,772 workers. It is estimated that this sample, in terms of employees, covered approximately 30 percent of those found in plants with 20 or more workers in 1936.

In selecting the sample great care was taken to make it fully representative of the part of the industry it covers. Among the factors considered were geographical distribution, size of city, size of establishment, degree of mechanization of plant, type of cigar, unionization, etc. The coverage of the survey by districts is shown in table 1.[2]

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[1] Prepared by Henry A. Bates and Donald L. Helm of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions, Jacob Perlman, chief.

[2] By size of establishment, the sample comprised 1,500 workers in 37 plants of 20 and under 100 employees, 6,290 workers in 38 plants of 100 and under 400 employees, 4,587 workers in 14 plants of 400 and under 800 employees, and 3,395 workers in 7 plants of 800 employees or larger. With regard to mechanization, the sample included 45 hand plants with 4,513 workers, 33 semimechanized plants with 6,025 workers, and 18 mechanized plants with 5,234 workers.

Table 1.—Coverage of Survey in Cigar Industry, by District, March 1936

District	Number of establishments covered	Number of employees			
		Total	Males	Females	
				Number	Percent of total
United States	96	15,772	3,725	12,047	76.4
North	78	11,627	2,165	9,462	81.4
New England	5	368	173	195	53.0
New York City	5	819	224	595	72.6
Up-State New York	3	375	82	293	78.1
New Jersey	9	1,730	205	1,525	88.2
Philadelphia	4	1,410	235	1,175	83.3
Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	10	2,486	369	2,117	85.2
Towns, eastern Pennsylvania	16	1,324	398	926	69.9
Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	3	660	83	577	87.4
Ohio	9	693	126	567	81.8
Indiana	4	538	73	465	86.4
Michigan	5	939	94	845	90.0
Other Middle Western States	5	285	103	182	63.9
South	18	4,145	1,560	2,585	62.4
Florida	13	2,884	1,377	1,507	52.3
Other Southern States	5	1,261	183	1,078	85.5

The main geographical break-down used in this survey consists of the northern and southern regions, which compare with the code definition of the two areas. Thus, Florida and the other Southern States (Louisiana and North Carolina) were included in the southern territory, all other districts being in the northern region. Among the northern districts, the data for New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut were combined under New England. The data for eastern Pennsylvania were subdivided to show Philadelphia, the small cities, and the towns separately, in order to bring out comparisons between urban and rural workers. The States of Illinois, Missouri, Wisconsin, and Iowa were included under the heading "other Middle Western States." In other words, the chief purpose of the geographical break-down used here was to produce districts which are statistically comparable.

Table 1 also indicates the great predominance of females in the industry. Thus, of the 15,772 workers in the sample, 12,047 or 76.4 percent were females. The percentage of females by districts, however, was quite uneven, varying from 52.3 in Florida to 90.0 in Michigan, with considerable contrasts found within more restricted areas. For example, in eastern Pennsylvania the percentage was 69.9 in towns, as compared with 85.2 in the small cities and 83.3 in Philadelphia. Likewise, it was 53.0 in New England, as against 72.6 in New York City and 88.2 in New Jersey. Lastly, while the proportion of females amounted to 52.3 percent in Florida, it was 85.5 percent in other Southern States.

The information collected in this survey covered the occupation, sex, color, age, total earnings, and total hours actually worked for one

pay-roll period, and annual earnings for each employee, occupational descriptions and technological changes, and personnel policies and working conditions. The present article is limited to the basic tabulations of the wages and hours data.[3]

Average Hourly Earnings

ALTHOUGH the average hourly earnings for all employees in the industry amounted to 37.1 cents, there were 3.4 percent earning under 20.0 cents, 11.4 percent under 25.0 cents, 26.9 percent under 30.0 cents, 51.1 percent under 35.0 cents, and 63.3 percent under 37.5 cents (the limit nearest the industry average). More than 90.0 percent of the workers earned under 50.0 cents, with the remainder scattered over a wide range that extended beyond $1. These percentages appear in table 2.

Table 2.—Percentage Distribution of Employees in Cigar Industry According to Average Hourly Earnings, by Sex, March 1936

Average hourly earnings	Total		Males		Females	
	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under 15.0 cents	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.9
15.0 and under 17.5 cents	.9	1.7	.6	1.1	1.1	2.0
17.5 and under 20.0 cents	1.7	3.4	.8	1.9	1.9	3.9
20.0 and under 22.5 cents	2.9	6.3	1.9	3.8	3.2	7.1
22.5 and under 25.0 cents	5.1	11.4	2.5	6.3	5.8	12.9
25.0 and under 27.5 cents	7.6	19.0	5.1	11.4	8.4	21.3
27.5 and under 30.0 cents	7.9	26.9	5.0	16.4	8.8	30.1
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	12.1	39.0	10.3	26.7	12.7	42.8
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	12.1	51.1	7.3	34.0	13.6	56.4
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	12.2	63.3	8.9	42.9	13.2	69.6
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	9.1	72.4	7.3	50.2	9.7	79.3
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	6.4	78.8	7.0	57.2	6.2	85.5
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	5.5	84.3	4.5	61.7	5.8	91.3
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	3.8	88.1	5.2	66.9	3.4	94.7
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	2.6	90.7	3.4	70.3	2.3	97.0
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	2.4	93.1	5.6	75.9	1.4	98.4
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	1.6	94.7	4.1	80.0	.9	99.3
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	1.3	96.0	4.0	84.0	.4	99.7
65.0 and under 70.0 cents	.7	96.7	2.9	86.9	(1)	99.7
70.0 and under 80.0 cents	1.2	97.9	4.7	91.6	.1	99.8
80.0 and under 90.0 cents	.9	98.8	3.4	95.0	.1	99.9
90.0 and under 100.0 cents	.5	99.3	2.0	97.0	(1)	100.0
100.0 and under 120.0 cents	.4	99.7	1.8	98.8	----------	----------
120.0 cents and over	.3	100.0	1.2	100.0	----------	----------
Total	100.0	----------	100.0	----------	100.0	----------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

An outstanding fact in the wage structure of this industry is the wide differential between the sexes. Thus, the average hourly earnings amounted to 46.3 cents for males and 33.8 cents for females, a difference of 12.5 cents. The contrast between the earnings of males and females is brought out even more vividly by comparing the two distributions. Among the employees earning under 30.0 cents per

[3] An analysis of the remaining information collected in this survey will appear in the final report for this industry.

hour, there were 16.4 percent males, as compared with 30.1 percent females. Likewise, slightly more than half of the males were paid under 40 cents, as against nearly 80 percent of the females. There were 20 percent of the males earning 60 cents and over, whereas this figure was virtually the top of the female range, with less than 1 percent earning that amount and above.

There was considerably less difference between the northern and southern averages than was found between the averages of males and females in each region. In the case of males, the average was 47.7 cents in the northern and 44.5 cents in the southern region, whereas for females it amounted to 34.3 and 32.1 cents, respectively, the regional differentials therefore being 3.2 cents for males and 2.2 cents for females. On the other hand, the differential in favor of males as against females amounted to 13.4 cents in the North and 12.4 cents in the South.

For both sexes combined, the average was 37.2 cents in the North and 37.1 cents in the South. The similarity of the averages was due to the fact that there were low-paid districts in the northern as well as in the southern region, and that the Florida average was comparable with those in some of the higher-paid districts in the North.

A substantial amount of variation, therefore, appears among the averages covering the various districts. Thus, by far the highest averages for both sexes combined, 50.9 cents, appears in New England. The next highest averages were found in Philadelphia (41.9 cents) and New York City (40.8 cents). The lowest State average was in Ohio (31.4 cents), and the smallest average of all (29.6 cents) in the towns of eastern Pennsylvania. The last figure is of particular interest, when contrasted with the much higher averages found in the small cities of eastern Pennsylvania and Philadelphia. The averages by district are found in table 3.

In general, the district averages for each sex followed the same order, although the range in the averages was greater for males than for females. It should also be noted that in each district the average for males exceeded that for females, this differential varying from 4.0 cents in Ohio to 21.1 cents in western Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

Table 4 presents the average hourly earnings by occupational classes. An examination of the available data shows that, for the United States as a whole, the averages for males ranged from 29.3 cents for hand-manipulated machine bunchmakers to 83.4 cents for office and plant supervisory employees, and for females from 18.4 cents for learners and apprentices to 45.9 cents for office and plant supervisory employees. With a few exceptions, wherever data were available for both sexes, the average for males exceeded that for females. The most notable sex differentials were in the occupational classes of wrapper selectors and office and plant supervisory employees,

the differential favoring males being approximately 40 cents in each case. The occupational classes in which females averaged somewhat more than males were bunchmakers, both on hand-manipulated and on shredded-filler machines, and miscellaneous service workers.

Table 3.—Average Hourly Earnings of Employees in Cigar Industry, by District and Sex, March 1936

District	Total	Males	Females
United States	$0.371	$0.463	$0.338
North	.372	.477	.343
New England	.509	.560	.444
New York City	.408	.453	.387
Up-State New York	.400	.510	.358
New Jersey	.383	.522	.361
Philadelphia	.419	.583	.380
Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	.388	.530	.354
Towns, eastern Pennsylvania	.296	.342	.274
Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	.328	.507	.296
Ohio	.314	.346	.306
Indiana	.328	.424	.309
Michigan	.363	.514	.343
Other Middle Western States	.320	.405	.281
South	.371	.445	.321
Florida	.389	.450	.331
Other Southern States	.325	.411	.308

Table 4.—Average Hourly Earnings of Employees in Cigar Industry, by Occupational Class, Region, and Sex, March 1936

Occupational class	United States		North		South	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Helpers, stocking	$0.349	$0.298	$0.348	$0.298	$0.356	$0.300
Conditioners, leaf	.480	-------	.472	-------	.498	-------
Conditioners' helpers, leaf	.347	.294	.346	.298	.353	(1)
Strippers, hand	-------	.255	-------	.262	-------	.245
Strippers, machine	-------	.292	-------	.293	-------	.287
Selectors, wrappers	.721	.323	(1)	.292	.734	.408
Cigar makers, hand, whole work	.391	.360	.421	.369	.365	.354
Bunchmakers, hand	.447	.354	.395	.361	.453	.339
Rollers, hand	.333	.321	.333	.322	.333	.320
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine	.293	.343	.291	.343	(1)	(1)
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine	.354	.370	.340	.380	.364	.342
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine	-------	.366	-------	.375	-------	.336
Filler feeders, long-filler machine	-------	.373	-------	.383	-------	.324
Binder layers, long-filler machine	-------	.372	-------	.382	-------	.326
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine	-------	.374	-------	.384	-------	.325
Finishers, long-filler machine	-------	.381	-------	.385	-------	.317
Examiners, final, cigar and box	.502	.377	.494	.377	(1)	.379
Mechanics	.754	-------	.753	-------	.757	-------
Packers	.536	.377	.448	.370	.615	.422
Banders and cellophaners, hand	-------	.311	-------	.303	-------	.321
Banders and cellophaners, machine	-------	.341	-------	.336	-------	.362
Supervisory employees, office and plant	.834	.459	.809	.458	.926	(1)
Clerical employees, office and plant	.529	.453	.500	.454	.569	.451
Miscellaneous direct skilled workers	(1)	.350	(1)	.351	-------	(1)
Miscellaneous direct semiskilled workers	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	-------
Miscellaneous direct unskilled workers	.363	.300	.353	.288	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect skilled workers	.655	-------	.677	-------	(1)	-------
Miscellaneous indirect semiskilled workers	.431	(1)	.437	-------	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect unskilled workers	.346	(1)	.366	(1)	.318	(1)
Miscellaneous service workers	.358	.371	.368	.380	.336	(1)
Learners and apprentices	.360	.184	(1)	.181	.340	(1)

[1] Averages not shown for less than 24 employees.

When the average hourly earnings for the 20 individual occupations engaged in direct labor are separated according to the 14 districts, as

in table 5, many wide differentials become apparent for similar work among the various areas. Sharp differences were, in fact, found within the confines of a single State, the four districts shown for Pennsylvania exhibiting such intrastate differentials. In addition to the differentials among districts, there was also considerable variation within the occupational wage structure in each district. The averages of males exceeded those of females in all but four cases, these exceptions being hand bunchmakers in New York City, hand-manipulated machine bunchmakers in Ohio, shredded-filler machine bunchmakers in Florida, and packers in Florida. The data also indicate the relatively low level of cigar workers' earnings in virtually all districts and occupations.

Table 5.—Average Hourly Earnings in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936

Occupation and sex	North						
	New England	New York City	Up-State New York	New Jersey	Philadelphia	Small cities, Eastern Pennsylvania	Towns, eastern Pennsylvania
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	$0.391	(1)	$0.337	$0.352	$0.333	$0.351	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	.307	.309	.317	(1)
Conditioners, leaf: Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	.516	.452	.449	$0.400
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:							
Males	(1)	$0.400	.380	.368	.330	.357	(1)
Females	-------	-------	(1)	.299	.288	.317	-------
Strippers, hand: Females	.295	.296	(1)	.292	(1)	(1)	(1)
Strippers, machine: Females	.382	.366	.316	.339	.270	.297	.300
Selectors, wrappers:							
Males	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	-------	-------
Females	(1)	.342	(1)	.324	(1)	(1)	-------
Cigar markers, hand, whole work:							
Males	.502	.475	-------	-------	-------	(1)	.317
Females	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	(1)	.316
Bunchmakers, hand:							
Males	(1)	.415	-------	-------	-------	-------	(1)
Females	-------	.420	(1)	.418	-------	.347	(1)
Rollers, hand:							
Males	(1)	.422	(1)	-------	-------	(1)	.255
Females	-------	.392	(1)	.363	-------	.310	.235
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:							
Males	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	.273	.293
Females	-------	(1)	-------	.380	-------	(1)	.252
Bunchmakers, shreded-filler machine:							
Males	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	(1)	.342
Females	.547	.418	.355	.366	.401	.377	.381
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females	.558	-------	.375	.326	.400	.375	.319
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	.481	-------	.383	.371	.441	.371	-------
Binder layers, long-filler machine: Females	.481	-------	.361	.369	.442	.367	-------
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	.478	-------	.365	.371	.442	.371	-------
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	(1)	-------	.370	.373	.440	.369	-------
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	-------	-------	(1)	(1)	.484	(1)	-------
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	.369	.415	.376	(1)
Packers:							
Males	.669	.472	(1)	(1)	-------	.371	.369
Females	(1)	.454	.373	.379	.425	.352	.319
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	.299	-------	(1)	.278
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	.410	.301	(1)	.335	.382	.358	.336

[1] Average not shown for less than 12 employees.

Table 5.—**Average Hourly Earnings in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936**—Continued

Occupation and sex	North—Continued					South	
	Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	Ohio	Indiana	Michigan	Other Middle Western States	Florida	Other Southern States
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	$0.352		$0.416	$0.314
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	.298	(1)	.353	.256
Conditioners, leaf: Males	$0.485	(1)	(1)	.481	(1)	.562	.318
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:					(1)		
Males	.340	(1)	$0.273	(1)		.365	(1))
Females	(1)	(1)	.262	.291	(1)	(1)	.251
Strippers, hand: Females	.259	$0.215	.240	.244		.249	.214
Strippers, machine: Females	.343	.287	.273	.273	$0.299	.326	.250
Selectors, wrappers:					(1)		
Males						.738	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)		.479	(1)
Cigar markers, hand, whole work:					(1)		
Males		.307				.365	
Females		(1)			.436	.354	
Bunchmakers, hand:					(1)		
Males						.458	(1)
Females	(1)		.340			.410	.300
Rollers, hand:					.290		
Males	(1)	.310	(1)			.333	(1)
Females	.298	.309	.304	.340	(1)	.323	.305
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:					.298		
Males	(1)	.292				(1)	
Females	.291	.324	(1)	.344		(1)	
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine:							
Males						.364	
Females		(1)	(1)			.376	.311
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females		(1)			(1)	.370	.315
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	.308	(1)	.353	.391	(1)	(1)	.324
Binder layers, long-filler: Females	.308	(1)	.356	.412		(1)	.326
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	.309	(1)	.357	.402		(1)	.325
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	.246	(1)	.357	.388		(1)	.318
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	(1)		(1)	(1)		(1)	
Females			(1)	(1)		(1)	.384
Packers:							
Males		(1)			(1)	.624	(1)
Females	.323	.330	.332	.380	.298	.662	.353
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	.261	(1)	.351	(1)	.327	.300
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	.290	(1)	(1)	.325	(1)	.387	.319

[1] Average not shown for less than 12 employees.

Weekly Hours

With an average of 34.8 hours per week for all employees in the industry, it was found that 60.5 percent worked under 40 hours, 22.6 percent exactly 40 hours, and the remaining 16.9 percent over 40 hours. Considerable part-time work during March 1936 is indicated by the large percentage working less than 40 hours and especially by the fact that 45.0 percent worked less than 36 hours per week. It is also notable that relatively few employees worked long hours, only 3.8 percent being employed 48 hours and over. These percentages appear in table 6.

Males were employed longer hours than females, the average for the former amounting to 39.4, as compared with 33.4 for the latter. According to the distributions in table 6, there were 33.9 percent of the males as compared with 68.8 percent of the females working

under 40 hours, which indicates that a relatively greater proportion of the females worked part time. The percentage working exactly 40 hours was 35.2 for males and 18.7 for females. Among employees working 48 hours and over, there were 10.8 percent males as against only 1.7 percent females.

Table 6.—Percentage Distribution of Employees in Cigar Industry According to Weekly Hours, by Sex, March 1936

Weekly hours	Total		Males		Females	
	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under 8.00 hours	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6
8.00 and under 16.00 hours	2.0	2.5	.7	.9	2.5	3.1
16.00 and under 24.00 hours	8.9	11.4	2.3	3.2	10.8	13.9
24.00 and under 32.00 hours	20.0	31.4	9.6	12.8	21.3	37.2
32.00 and under 36.00 hours	13.6	45.0	9.7	22.5	14.8	52.0
36.00 and under 40.00 hours	15.5	60.5	11.4	33.9	16.8	68.8
40.00 hours	22.6	83.1	35.2	69.1	18.7	87.5
40.01 and under 44.00 hours	4.0	87.1	4.1	73.2	3.9	91.4
44.00 and under 48.00 hours	9.1	96.2	16.0	89.2	6.9	98.3
48.00 and under 56.00 hours	3.5	99.7	9.5	98.7	1.7	100.0
56.00 hours and over	.3	100.0	1.3	100.0	----	----
Total	100.0	----	100.0	----	100.0	----

The average weekly hours were greater in the South than in the North, this being true for each sex as well as for all employees. As regards the districts, the range in hours for both sexes combined was from 30.4 in the small cities of eastern Pennsylvania to 38.4 in Florida, the spread for males being from 33.2 in other Middle Western States to 43.0 in Michigan, and for females from 27.0 in New England to 40.8 in the other Middle Western States. In each district, excepting the other Middle Western States, the average weekly hours for males exceeded those of females. The district averages by sex are presented in table 7.

Table 7.—Average Weekly Hours of Employees in Cigar Industry, by District and Sex, March 1936

District	Total	Males	Females
United States	34.8	39.4	33.4
North	33.8	39.0	32.6
New England	32.1	37.8	27.0
New York City	33.9	39.2	31.9
Up-State New York	30.7	38.9	28.4
New Jersey	35.9	41.9	35.1
Philadelphia	36.1	41.7	34.9
Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	30.4	39.7	28.8
Towns, eastern Pennsylvania	32.3	35.0	31.1
Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	35.2	42.3	34.1
Ohio	35.4	38.7	34.3
Indiana	33.7	42.1	32.4
Michigan	35.9	43.0	35.1
Other Middle Western States	38.0	33.2	40.8
South	37.8	39.9	36.5
Florida	38.4	39.6	37.3
Other Southern States	36.4	41.6	35.5

The average hours per week by occupational classes are shown in table 8. For the country as a whole, it is seen that the average weekly hours of males ranged from 36.0 for hand cigar makers, whole work, to 46.4 for miscellaneous service workers. Among females, the average hours were much shorter, ranging from 28 hours for learners and apprentices to 41.6 for office and plant supervisory employees. In each occupation, the males worked longer hours than females.

Table 8.—Average Weekly Hours of Employees in Cigar Industry, by Occupational Class, Region, and Sex, March 1936

Occupational class	United States		North		South	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Helpers, stocking	39.2	35.7	38.8	34.9	41.4	38.1
Conditioners, leaf	41.6	----	41.6	----	41.6	----
Conditioners' helpers, leaf	39.5	34.5	39.1	34.0	40.9	(1)
Strippers, hand	----	34.2	----	33.1	----	35.6
Strippers, machine	----	32.1	----	31.7	----	34.8
Selectors, wrappers	39.6	37.1	(1)	37.4	39.6	36.4
Cigar makers, hand, whole work	36.0	34.9	33.8	31.8	37.9	37.3
Bunchmakers, hand	37.7	32.4	36.3	30.6	37.9	36.9
Rollers, hand	37.9	34.8	34.7	33.5	39.4	37.8
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine	37.2	34.3	37.1	34.3	(1)	(1)
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine	36.1	34.4	29.5	33.8	43.4	36.1
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine	----	34.3	----	33.6	----	36.5
Filler feeders, long-filler machine	----	31.3	----	30.6	----	35.7
Binder layers, long-filler machine	----	30.9	----	30.2	----	34.9
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine	----	31.2	----	30.5	----	35.8
Finishers, long-filler machine	----	30.0	----	29.6	----	36.5
Examiners, final, cigar and box	40.8	35.6	39.8	34.3	(1)	40.1
Mechanics	42.9	----	43.0	----	41.9	----
Packers	36.2	31.8	34.8	31.6	37.5	32.7
Banders and cellophaners, hand	----	34.0	----	32.4	----	36.2
Banders and cellophaners, machine	----	33.6	----	33.7	----	32.9
Supervisory employees, office and plant	43.5	41.6	43.3	41.6	44.1	(1)
Clerical employees, office and plant	41.8	40.4	41.3	40.3	42.4	40.8
Miscellaneous direct skilled workers	(1)	36.9	(1)	37.0	----	(1)
Miscellaneous direct semiskilled workers	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	----
Miscellaneous direct unskilled workers	39.4	37.7	39.1	38.3	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect skilled workers	45.3	----	44.6	----	(1)	----
Miscellaneous indirect semiskilled workers	44.1	(1)	43.8	----	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect unskilled workers	40.0	(1)	39.1	(1)	41.2	(1)
Miscellaneous service workers	46.4	37.3	46.2	37.6	46.8	(1)
Learners and apprentices	39.2	28.0	(1)	27.7	41.5	(1)

[1] Averages not shown for less than 24 employees.

In table 9, the average weekly hours for the 20 individual occupations engaged in direct labor are shown according to the 14 districts. In several districts, notably Indiana, Philadelphia, and Florida, there was relatively little variation among the averages of all occupations. In other districts, averages among the occupations varied widely. Similarly, there were wide variations per occupation among the 14 districts. Lastly, wherever comparable data are available, the males worked longer hours than females in nearly all cases.

Table 9.—Average Weekly Hours in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936

Occupation and sex	North						
	New England	New York City	Up-State New York	New Jersey	Philadelphia	Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	Towns, eastern Pennsylvania
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	40.1	(1)	36.6	40.0	39.2	34.9	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	39.0	37.7	25.5	(1)
Conditioners, leaf: Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	43.4	40.1	39.9	43.6
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:							
Males	(1)	46.1	36.6	40.7	41.3	33.4	(1)
Females	------	------	(1)	38.0	37.3	28.1	------
Strippers, hand: Females	15.6	36.0	(1)	36.4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Strippers, machine: Females	27.6	37.9	34.8	28.1	35.8	28.1	31.1
Selectors, wrappers:							
Males	(1)	(1)	------	(1)	------	------	------
Females	(1)	35.4	(1)	38.1	(1)	(1)	------
Cigar makers, hand, whole work:							
Males	36.7	39.2	------	------	------	(1)	34.0
Females	(1)	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	33.5
Bunchmakers, hand:							
Males	(1)	36.5	------	------	------	------	(1)
Females	------	29.6	(1)	31.7	------	26.5	(1)
Rollers, hand:							
Males	(1)	34.7	(1)	------	------	(1)	32.4
Females	------	30.1	(1)	35.4	------	29.1	32.6
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:							
Males	------	------	------	------	------	47.3	34.9
Females	------	(1)	------	33.6	------	(1)	32.5
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine:							
Males	------	------	------	------	------	(1)	29.1
Females	30.5	33.0	35.0	36.6	33.4	37.0	27.8
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females	29.6	------	35.3	35.1	36.1	37.0	28.3
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	20.7	------	25.6	35.6	34.3	27.3	------
Binder layers, long-filler machine: Females	20.7	------	25.1	35.4	33.5	26.8	------
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	21.2	------	25.5	35.3	34.3	27.0	------
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	(1)	------	25.3	24.7	33.1	27.1	------
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	------	------	(1)	(1)	40.5	(1)	------
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	38.1	41.0	29.7	(1)
Packers:							
Males	31.1	35.4	(1)	(1)	------	34.6	37.2
Females	(1)	32.7	26.5	33.9	34.3	28.5	30.1
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	37.4	------	(1)	27.1
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	33.7	42.4	(1)	38.3	35.6	30.9	28.6

Occupation and sex	North					South	
	Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	Ohio	Indiana	Michigan	Other Middle Western States	Florida	Other Southern States
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	36.7	(1)	42.8	40.4
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	39.9	(1)	37.8	38.3
Conditioners, leaf: Males	39.4	(1)	(1)	42.3	(1)	41.9	40.9
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:							
Males	40.1	(1)	32.4	(1)	(1)	40.8	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	35.2	38.0	------	(1)	38.9
Strippers, hand: Females	37.7	27.2	35.6	34.2	33.8	35.5	36.1
Strippers, machine: Females	28.7	33.6	28.8	33.9	(1)	45.5	28.3
Selectors, wrappers:							
Males	------	------	------	------	------	40.2	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	35.0	(1)
Cigar makers, hand, whole work:							
Males	------	34.5	------	------	31.0	37.9	------
Females	------	(1)	------	------	(1)	37.3	------
Bunchmakers, hand:							
Males	------	------	------	------	------	37.7	(1)
Females	(1)	------	31.8	------	42.0	35.1	37.9

Table 9.—Average Weekly Hours in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936—Continued

Occupation and sex	North					South	
	Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	Ohio	Indiana	Michigan	Other Middle Western States	Florida	Other Southern States
Rollers, hand:							
Males		35.2	(1)		(1)	39.4	(1)
Females	36.9	34.5	33.2	35.3	42.5	38.0	37.3
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:							
Males	(1)	39.1				(1)	
Females	42.1	34.1	(1)	35.1		(1)	
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine:							
Males						43.4	
Females		(1)	(1)		(1)	36.9	35.5
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females		(1)			(1)	39.3	34.9
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	33.4	(1)	28.5	32.7		(1)	35.8
Binder layers, long-filler machine: Females	33.1	(1)	28.2	33.2		(1)	34.9
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	33.4	(1)	28.9	32.0		(1)	35.7
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	26.6	(1)	28.9	33.2		(1)	36.3
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	(1)		(1)	(1)		(1)	
Females			(1)	(1)		(1)	40.1
Packers:							
Males		(1)			(1)	37.5	(1)
Females	32.8	36.7	31.0	32.0	42.7	31.7	33.0
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	37.0	(1)	40.4	(1)	35.9	37.6
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	33.0	(1)	(1)	33.9	(1)	30.5	38.2

[1] Averages not shown for less than 12 employees.

Average Weekly Earnings

As NOTED previously, the average weekly earnings of all employees in the industry amounted to $12.94, but the extent of the low weekly pay can only be seen from the distribution of individual workers. According to table 10, 17.0 percent earned less than $8, 48.6 percent less than $12, and 79.2 percent less than $16. Among the remaining employees, 12.5 percent earned $16 and under $20, and 3.4 percent $28 and over. The presence of such a relatively large proportion of low-paid workers was the result of low average hourly earnings as well as short weekly hours.

The average earnings per week of male workers amounted to $18.24, which was considerably higher than the average of $11.30 reported for females. As previously stated, the large difference in favor of males was due to the fact that they not only had higher average hourly earnings but also longer hours of work.

Table 10.—Percentage Distribution of Employees in Cigar Industry According to Weekly Earnings, by Sex, March 1936

Weekly earnings	Total		Males		Females	
	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $4	2.2	2.2	0.9	0.9	2.6	2.6
$4 and under $6	4.6	6.8	1.6	2.5	5.6	8.2
$6 and under $8	10.2	17.0	2.9	5.4	12.4	20.6
$8 and under $10	13.6	30.6	5.7	11.1	16.0	36.6
$10 and under $12	18.0	48.6	11.1	22.2	20.2	56.8
$12 and under $14	19.7	68.3	16.0	38.2	20.8	77.6
$14 and under $16	10.9	79.2	12.8	51.0	10.4	88.0
$16 and under $18	8.3	87.5	10.9	61.9	7.5	95.5
$18 and under $20	4.2	91.7	8.1	70.0	2.9	98.4
$20 and under $22	1.7	93.4	5.1	75.1	.7	99.1
$22 and under $24	1.3	94.7	4.2	79.3	.4	99.5
$24 and under $26	1.2	95.9	4.1	83.4	.3	99.8
$26 and under $28	.7	96.6	2.6	86.0	.1	99.9
$28 and under $30	.6	97.2	2.4	88.4	[1]	99.9
$30 and under $32	.5	97.7	2.2	90.6	[1]	99.9
$32 and under $36	.8	98.5	3.0	93.6	[1]	99.9
$36 and under $44	.9	99.4	3.9	97.5	.1	100.0
$44 and over	.6	100.0	2.5	100.0		
Total	100.0		100.0		100.0	

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

This sex differential is further brought out by a comparison of the distributions pertaining to the two sexes. Thus, while only 5.4 percent of the males earned under $8, the number of females falling in that class amounted to 20.6 percent. The percentage of employees earning under $12 was 22.2 for males and 56.8 for females, and the number earning under $16 formed 51.0 percent for males and 88.0 percent for females. Lastly, there were 30.0 percent of the males, as compared with 1.6 percent of the females, who were paid $20 and over.

It is seen from table 11 that the average earnings per week of all employees in the South exceeded those in the North, the former amounting to $14.00 as compared with $12.56 for the latter. As regards the several districts, the highest averages were found in New England ($16.32), Philadelphia ($15.12), and Florida ($14.96). Low averages appeared in the other Southern States ($11.82), the small cities in eastern Pennsylvania ($11.81), western Pennsylvania and West Virginia ($11.52), Ohio ($11.11), and Indiana ($11.06), with the smallest average ($9.57) in the towns of eastern Pennsylvania.

Male workers earned slightly less per week, on the average, in the South as compared with the North, the figures being, respectively, $17.74 and $18.59. The highest average weekly earnings for males appeared in Philadelphia ($24.32) and Michigan ($22.10). The lowest averages were reported in the other Middle Western States

($13.45), Ohio ($13.43), and the towns in eastern Pennsylvania ($11.97). As regards females, the average earnings per week amounted to $11.74 in the South, as compared with $11.18 in the North. On a district basis, the averages ranged from $13.28 in Philadelphia to $10.00 in Indiana, if the average of $8.53 for the towns in eastern Pennsylvania is excluded. In every district, the average for females was substantially lower than for males.

Table 11.—Average Weekly Earnings of Employees in Cigar Industry, by District and Sex, March 1936

District	Total	Males	Females
United States	$12.94	$18.24	$11.30
North	12.56	18.59	11.18
New England	16.32	21.20	11.99
New York City	13.83	17.76	12.35
Up-State New York	12.29	19.88	10.16
New Jersey	13.74	21.90	12.65
Philadelphia	15.12	24.32	13.28
Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	11.81	21.06	10.20
Towns, eastern Pennsylvania	9.57	11.97	8.53
Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	11.52	21.46	10.09
Ohio	11.11	13.43	10.60
Indiana	11.06	17.84	10.00
Michigan	13.05	22.10	12.05
Other Middle Western States	12.19	13.45	11.47
South	14.00	17.74	11.74
Florida	14.96	17.83	12.33
Other Southern States	11.82	17.08	10.93

The average weekly earnings by occupational class are shown in table 12. For the industry as a whole, the male averages ranged from $10.89 for hand-manipulated machine bunchmakers to $36.23 for office and plant supervisory employees. Among female workers, the range was narrower, from $5.15 for learners and apprentices to $19.08 for office and plant supervisory employees. In occupational classes, showing both male and female averages, the earnings of males were higher in all cases but one, the exception being hand-manipulated machine bunchmakers. In this case, the male average was $10.89 as against $11.78 for females, although in another occupation, shredded-filler machine bunchmakers, the averages for the two sexes were virtually equal.

Table 12.—Average Weekly Earnings of Employees in Cigar Industry, by Occupational Class, Region, and Sex, March 1936

Occupational class	United States		North		South	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Helpers, stocking	$13.68	$10.64	$13.48	$10.39	$14.74	$11.42
Conditioners, leaf	20.00	-------	19.68	-------	20.73	-------
Conditioners' helpers, leaf	13.70	10.15	13.52	10.12	14.46	(1)
Strippers, hand	-------	8.70	-------	8.70	-------	8.71
Strippers, machine	-------	9.39	-------	9.30	-------	9.99
Selectors, wrappers	28.54	11.97	(1)	10.91	29.05	14.86

Table 12.—Average Weekly Earnings of Employees in Cigar Industry, by Occupational Class, Region, and Sex, March 1936—Continued

Occupational class	United States		North		South	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Cigar makers, hand, whole work	$14.05	$12.57	$14.25	$11.72	$13.86	$13.21
Bunchmakers, hand	16.83	11.45	14.31	11.04	17.16	12.48
Rollers, hand	12.60	11.18	11.55	10.79	13.11	12.10
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine	10.89	11.78	10.78	11.78	(1)	(1)
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine	12.75	12.72	10.01	12.85	15.81	12.33
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine	-------	12.53	-------	12.61	-------	12.26
Filler feeders, long-filler machine	-------	11.69	-------	11.71	-------	11.58
Binder layers, long-filler machine	-------	11.49	-------	11.52	-------	11.36
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine	-------	11.68	-------	11.69	-------	11.64
Finishers, long-filler machine	-------	11.42	-------	11.41	-------	11.58
Examiners, final, cigar and box	20.48	13.44	19.67	12.92	(1)	15.19
Mechanics	32.31	-------	32.42	-------	31.70	-------
Packers	19.41	11.99	15.61	11.70	23.04	13.77
Banders and cellophaners, hand	-------	10.59	-------	9.80	-------	11.65
Banders and cellophaners, machine	-------	11.45	-------	11.34	-------	11.92
Supervisory employees, office and plant	36.23	19.08	35.03	19.04	40.84	(1)
Clerical employees, office and plant	22.10	18.33	20.62	18.30	24.15	18.42
Miscellaneous direct skilled workers	(1)	12.89	(1)	13.01	-------	(1)
Miscellaneous direct semiskilled workers	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	-------
Miscellaneous direct unskilled workers	14.31	11.22	13.82	11.00	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect skilled workers	29.66	-------	30.21	-------	(1)	-------
Miscellaneous indirect semiskilled workers	19.01	(1)	19.18	-------	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous indirect unskilled workers	13.82	(1)	14.30	(1)	13.13	(1)
Miscellaneous service workers	16.59	13.86	17.01	14.28	15.74	(1)
Learners and apprentices	14.12	5.15	(1)	5.01	14.13	(1)

[1] Averages not shown for less than 24 employees.

In table 13, the average weekly earnings are presented for the 20 individual occupations engaged in direct labor, as found in the 14 districts. Since these averages represent the composites of the variations in hourly earnings and weekly hours that have previously been shown, wide differentials among them are found by regions, occupations, and the sexes. In New England, for example, female hand strippers averaged $4.60, while male packers averaged $20.81. In a single occupation, female machine strippers averaged as low as $7.07 in other Southern States but $14.83 in Florida. As regards the sexes, male and female packers in towns of eastern Pennsylvania averaged respectively $13.69 and $9.60. The favorable wage levels of Philadelphia and Florida, previously noted, are in evidence, although low averages were found among the female machine strippers in Philadelphia and female hand strippers in Florida. Several areas are likewise seen in which the weekly earnings structure was consistently low, notably the towns in eastern Pennsylvania and Indiana.

Table 13.—Average Weekly Earnings of Employees in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936

Occupation and sex	North						
	New England	New York City	Up-State New York	New Jersey	Philadelphia	Small cities, eastern Pennsylvania	Towns, eastern Pennsylvania
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	$15.65	(1)	$12.31	$14.07	$13.04	$12.25	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	11.97	11.64	8.08	(1)
Conditioners, leaf: Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	22.36	18.13	17.94	$17.45
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:							
Males	(1)	$18.43	13.91	15.00	13.61	11.91	(1)
Females	-------	-------	(1)	11.39	10.75	8.91	-------
Strippers, hand: Females	4.60	10.66	(1)	10.60	(1)	(1)	(1)
Strippers, machine: Females	10.53	13.87	11.02	9.50	9.65	8.34	9.31
Selectors, wrappers:							
Males	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	-------	-------
Females	(1)	12.11	(1)	12.34	(1)	(1)	-------
Cigar makers, hand, whole work:							
Males	18.43	18.62	-------	-------	-------	(1)	10.80
Females	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	(1)	10.58
Bunchmakers, hand:							
Males	(1)	15.17	-------	-------	-------	-------	(1)
Females	-------	12.42	(1)	13.27	-------	9.19	(1)
Rollers, hand:							
Males	(1)	14.62	(1)	-------	-------	(1)	8.27
Females	-------	11.83	(1)	12.85	-------	9.01	7.67
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:							
Males	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	12.92	10.21
Females	-------	(1)	-------	12.77	-------	(1)	8.20
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine:							
Males	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	(1)	9.96
Females	16.72	13.79	12.45	13.39	13.40	13.94	8.85
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females	16.52	-------	13.23	11.45	14.41	13.86	9.04
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	9.96	-------	9.80	13.19	15.11	10.13	-------
Binder layers, long-filler machine: Females	9.97	-------	9.07	13.09	14.81	9.83	-------
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	10.16	-------	9.32	13.12	15.17	10.02	-------
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	(1)	-------	9.36	12.93	14.56	10.00	-------
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	-------	-------	(1)	(1)	19.58	(1)	-------
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	14.06	17.01	11.14	(1)
Packers:							
Males	20.81	16.70	(1)	(1)	-------	12.86	13.69
Females	(1)	14.83	9.89	12.84	14.58	10.02	9.60
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	11.18	-------	(1)	7.53
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	13.84	12.78	(1)	12.84	13.62	11.06	9.60

[1] Averages not shown for less than 12 employees.

Table 13.—Average Weekly Earnings of Employees in Individual Occupations in Cigar Industry, by Sex and District, March 1936—Continued

Occupation and sex	North					South	
	Western Pennsylvania and West Virginia	Ohio	Indiana	Michigan	Other Middle Western States	Florida	Other Southern States
Helpers, stocking:							
Males	(1)	(1)	(1)	$12.90	(1)	$17.82	$12.68
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	11.92	(1)	13.38	9.80
Conditioners, leaf: Males	$19.12	(1)	(1)	20.39	(1)	23.55	13.02
Conditioners' helpers, leaf:							
Males	13.63	(1)	$8.85	(1)	(1)	15.69	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	9.20	11.07		(1)	9.79
Strippers, hand: Females	9.78	$5.87	8.55	8.35	$10.10	8.85	7.72
Strippers, machine: Females	9.84	9.66	7.87	9.25	(1)	14.83	7.07
Selectors, wrappers:							
Males						29.71	(1)
Females	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	16.77	(1)
Cigar makers, hand, whole work:							
Males		10.59			13.51	13.86	
Females		(1)			(1)	13.21	
Bunchmakers, hand:							
Males						17.28	(1)
Females	(1)		10.78		12.21	14.41	11.35
Rollers, hand:							
Males		10.93	(1)		(1)	13.10	(1)
Females	11.00	10.65	10.09	12.00	12.68	12.27	11.37
Bunchmakers, hand-manipulated machine:							
Males	(1)	11.42				(1)	
Females	12.27	11.06	(1)	12.07		(1)	
Bunchmakers, shredded-filler machine:							
Males						15.81	
Females		(1)	(1)		(1)	13.87	11.04
Wrapper layers, shredded-filler machine: Females		(1)			(1)	14.55	10.98
Filler feeders, long-filler machine: Females	10.32	(1)	10.07	12.77		(1)	11.61
Binder layers, long-filler machine: Females	10.18	(1)	10.04	13.69		(1)	11.38
Wrapper layers, long-filler machine: Females	10.31	(1)	10.31	12.87		(1)	11.61
Finishers, long-filler machine: Females	6.53	(1)	10.31	12.88		(1)	11.51
Examiners, final, cigar and box:							
Males	(1)		(1)	(1)		(1)	
Females			(1)	(1)		(1)	15.40
Packers:							
Males		(1)			(1)	23.37	(1)
Females	10.59	12.10	10.30	12.18	12.73	21.00	11.63
Banders and cellophaners, hand: Females	(1)	9.64	(1)	14.20	(1)	11.74	11.28
Banders and cellophaners, machine: Females	9.57	(1)	(1)	11.03	(1)	11.80	12.19

[1] Averages not shown for less than 12 employees.

Wages and Hours in Union Bakeries, May 15, 1936

AVERAGE rates of wages in the bakery trades, as reported in a survey by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics[1] increased slightly more than 2 cents an hour between 1935 and 1936. The average rate in 1935 was $0.877 per hour, and in 1936 it was $0.899 per hour. The Hebrew bakeries maintained an average wage differential of about 41 cents over other bakeries during both years.

[1] This study is based on union rates obtained by agents of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for May 15, 1936, in 43 cities of the United States, covering over 15,000 union members in the bakery trades. Averages are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. See Monthly Labor Review, April 1936 (pp. 912–915), for a similar report on surveys taken in 1934 and 1935.

One reason for this differential, aside from the generally higher rates in Hebrew bakeries, is the fact that a large proportion of Hebrew bakeries are located in New York, where the average of all rates is higher than in other localities.[2] The 1936 average rate in New York Hebrew bakeries was $1.283, and outside of New York it was $1.035.

Thirty percent of all the union members covered in 1936 received rates of $1 or more per hour. Nearly 78 percent of the members employed in Hebrew bakeries had rates of $1 or more, while only 12½ percent of the members in other bakeries received such rates. Almost 60 percent of all the union members covered received rates from 60 cents to less than $1 an hour, as is seen in table 1.

Table 1.—Union Wage Scales in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1936

Classified hourly rates	All bakeries	Hebrew bakeries	Other bakeries
Number of union members covered	15,086	4,202	10,884
Average hourly rate	$0.899	$1.196	$0.785
Percent of members whose hourly rates were—			
Under 35 cents	0.2	----	0.2
35 cents and under 40 cents	1.4	----	2.0
40 cents and under 50 cents	2.0	0.8	2.5
50 cents and under 60 cents	7.2	.7	9.7
60 cents and under 70 cents	10.9	2.3	14.2
70 cents and under 80 cents	18.7	2.1	25.1
80 cents and under 90 cents	11.1	2.2	14.5
90 cents and under $1.00	17.9	14.2	19.3
$1.00 and under $1.10	9.0	8.5	9.3
$1.10 and under $1.20	5.8	17.5	1.2
$1.20 and under $1.30	2.1	2.5	2.0
$1.30 and under $1.40	7.6	27.2	(1)
$1.40 and under $1.50	6.1	22.0	----

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Almost 40 percent of the union members covered in both years received wage increases during the period (table 2). Only 3 percent received decreases, the remaining having no change in wage rates.

Table 2.—Changes in Wage Scales in the Bakery Trades, 1936 Compared With 1935

Type of bakery	Number of quotations comparable with 1935	Wage rates per hour					
		Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All types	241	68	12	161	39.4	3.0	57.6
Hebrew bakeries	59	23	2	34	38.3	.4	61.3
Other bakeries	182	45	10	127	39.8	4.2	56.0

[1] About 28 percent of the union members covered were employed in Hebrew bakeries. Two-thirds of these were located in New York City.

Average union hours in the bakery trades have remained at about 43 hours per week for the past 3 years. During the period 1929–33 hours averaged slightly more than 47 per week.

In 1936 almost 38 percent of the union members worked on a 40-hour-per-week scale, 21 percent on one of around 44 hours, and 27 percent on a 48-hour-per-week scale (table 3). Practically all members in Hebrew bakeries worked over 44 hours per week, while in the other bakeries 70 percent of the members worked 44 hours or less.

Table 3.—Union Scales of Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1936

Classified weekly hours	All bakeries	Hebrew bakeries	Other bakeries
Average weekly hours	48.0	45.3	42.2
Percent of members whose hours per week were—			
Under 35 hours	1.9	4.2	1.0
35 hours	.4	----------	.6
Over 35 and under 37½ hours	5.0	----------	6.9
37½ hours	.2	----------	.2
40 hours	37.6	----------	52.1
Over 40 and under 44 hours	4.7	----------	6.5
44 hours	1.6	----------	2.3
Over 44 and under 48 hours	21.2	68.4	3.0
48 hours	27.4	27.4	27.4

Less than 1 percent of the union membership covered in 1935 and 1936 had increases in hours per week during the past year, while 3½ percent had decreases. As is seen from table 4, for most of the members there were no changes in hours between the 2 years.

Table 4.—Changes in Hour Scales in the Bakery Trades, 1936 Compared With 1935

Type of bakery	Number of quotations comparable with 1935	Hours per week					
		Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All types	241	7	9	225	0.7	3.5	95.8
Hebrew bakeries	59	2	----------	57	.4	----------	99.6
Other bakeries	182	5	9	168	.9	5.1	94.0

There is considerable variation within a city in the maximum hours observed in the different kinds of shops, although in no case are workdays more than 8 hours. Four agreements provide for a 6-hour day, while 6⅔ to 7½ hours are provided in 20 agreements. Split schedules of 6 hours for 4 days and 8 hours for 2 days or 6½ hours for 4 days and 7 hours for 2 days are occasionally provided to meet the exigencies of week-end demands for goods. In all but 10 cases, which set a 5-day week, the workweek was 6 days.

Overtime work is often prohibited when union members are unemployed or except in cases of emergency. In some cases a permit from the union must be secured before overtime may be worked. Other agreements set a limit on the amount of overtime permissible for each employee, usually a maximum of 2 hours per week. In a number of cases at least a certain number of hours, commonly 12, must elapse before an employee may be called to begin the next day's work.

Although in some agreements work on any holiday is prohibited, most agreements apply such prohibition only to labor holidays. Six holidays were provided in most cases, but the number varied from three to nine. The usual holidays observed are New Year's, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Agreements for Hebrew bakeries generally provide for several religious holidays in addition to the legal holidays.

Pay for Overtime and Extra Work

THE usual overtime rate in union bakeries is time and a half, although somewhat lower rates were fairly common. The rate for work performed on the weekly day off and on holidays is in most cases the same as the overtime rate, although some provide for double pay for work on holidays. Some agreements provide full pay when holidays are observed.

Because of the necessity of night work to produce fresh goods for sale the following day, a provision for extra pay for night work is frequently found. The periods during which this extra pay applies begin between 6 and 10 p. m. and end between 4 and 6 a. m. The amount of the night bonus varies from an additional 5 cents an hour to 25 cents an hour.

A minimum of 5 or 6 hours or a full day's pay is at times provided for all those beginning a day's work. In one agreement half pay is guaranteed during the first 2 weeks of absence from work due to disability.

Employment Regulations

Two agreements provide that seniority shall determine order of lay-off and reemployment. All the other agreements provide that, during slack seasons, work is to be shared equally under a rotation system. Several agreements specify that a worker may not be laid off except at the end of a pay period and in most cases at least a week's notice is required. Notice must often be sent to the union as well as to the individual worker affected. An employee may be discharged for cause at the employer's discretion, but the union is given time to investigate before the discharge becomes permanent. Discriminatory discharge for union activity is prohibited. Substitutes and new workers must be secured from the union in about half the agreements. Without exception these men must apply for union membership within a specified period, never longer than 2 weeks.

Apprentices

VARIATIONS in the size and mechanization of the establishment cause a considerable diversity in the requirements regarding apprentices. When the number of apprentices is limited to a proportion of journeymen employed, the ratio is in most cases 1 apprentice to 5 journeymen. Sometimes the ratio is as high as 1 to 3, in other cases as low as 1 to 15. In many shops apprentices are assigned on the basis of 1 or 2 to each shift. The length of apprenticeship is usually 3 years, but other periods are established in some agreements. In those agreements where the age of the entering apprentice is regulated, 17 to 25 years is the usual limit. Union membership is required of apprentices either before starting to work or after a brief probationary period.

Rates of Wages and Hours in Each City

UNION rates per hour and hours per week in the bakery trades, by city and occupation, May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1935, are shown in table 4.

Table 4.—Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1935 and 1936

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Baltimore, Md.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen and ovenmen	*Dol.* 1.188	48	*Dol.* 1.188	48
Second hands	1.125	48	1.125	48
Boston, Mass.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	1.146	48	1.146	48
Second hands	1.042	48	1.042	48
Third hands	.938	48	.938	48
Buffalo, N. Y.				
Day work:				
Ovenmen and mixers	.667	48	.667	48
Bench hands	.625	48	.625	48
Night work:				
Ovenmen and mixers	.708	48	.708	48
Bench hands	.667	48	.667	48
Hebrew and Polish bakeries:				
Day work:				
First hands and ovenmen	.667	48	.667	48
Second hands, mixers, and bench hands	.583	48	.583	48
Buffalo, N. Y.—Contd.				
Hebrew and Polish bakeries—Continued.				
Night work:				
First hands and ovenmen	*Dol.* 0.708	48	*Dol.* 0.708	48
Second hands, mixers, and bench hands	.667	48	.667	48
Butte, Mont.				
Foremen or mixers	1.091	44	1.091	44
Ovenmen or benchmen	.955	44	.955	44
Chicago, Ill.				
Retail bakeries:				
First hands	[1] 1.771	48	[1] 1.750	48
Second hands	[1] 1.729	48	[1] 1.708	48
Wholesale bakeries:				
First hands, ovenmen, and spongers	[2] 1.730	40	[2] 1.730	40
Second hands	[2] 1.690	40	[2] 1.690	40
Bohemian bakeries:				
Small shops:				
First hands	.667	48	.625	48
Second hands	.604	48	.563	48
Large shops:				
First hands	.800	40	------	------
Second hands	.725	40	------	------

[1] 10 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 4 a. m.
[2] 5 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.

Table 4.—Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1935 and 1936—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Chicago, Ill.—Contd.				
Hebrew bakeries:	*Dol.*		*Dol.*	
Foremen	[3] 1.125	32	[3] 1.125	32
Second hands	[3] 1.063	32	[3] 1.063	32
Third hands	[3] .938	32	[3] .938	32
Polish bakeries:				
Foremen or spongers	[4] .938	32	------	------
Second hands	[4] .817	32	------	------
Scandinavian bakeries:				
First hands, spongers, or ovenmen	[5] .900	42	[5] .850	42
Second hands	[5] .850	42	[5] .800	42
Helpers	[5] .550	42	[5] .500	42
Cincinnati, Ohio				
Foremen or first hands	.920	40	.895	40
Bench and machine hands	.775	40	.750	40
Ovenmen and mixers	.838	40	.813	40
Helpers	.600	40	.575	40
Cleveland, Ohio				
Union A:				
First hands	.750	48	.750	48
Second hands	.625	48	.625	48
Helpers	.563	48	.417	48
Union B:				
Small shops:				
First hands	.750	48	------	------
Second hands	.688	48	------	------
Third hands	.563	48	------	------
Large shops:				
Mixers or ovenmen	.750	40	.720	40
Bench or machine hands	.690	40	.610	40
Mixer helper or molder and divider	.640	40	.610	40
Oven feeders	.580	40	.550	40
Helpers, male	.530	40	.500	40
Helpers, female	.390	40	.370	40
Slicers, female	.470	40	------	------
Bohemian bakeries:				
First hands	.750	48	.750	48
Second hands	.708	48	.708	48
Third hands	.625	48	.625	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands	1.042	48	1.042	48
Second hands	.938	48	.938	48
Third hands	.500	48	.500	48
Dallas, Tex.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.667	48	.667	48
Ovenmen or mixers	.500	48	.500	48
Bench hands	.458	48	.458	48
Davenport, Iowa				
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)				
Denver, Colo.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen, day work	.857	42	.857	42
Foremen, night work	.929	42	.929	42
Ovenmen or mixers, day work	0.762	42	0.762	42
Bench or machine hands, day work	.714	42	.714	42
Machine hands, night work	.786	42	.786	42
Machine shops:				
Shift foremen:				
Day work	.875	40	.875	40
Night work	.950	40	.950	40
Part day and night work	.913	40	.913	40
Mixers and ovenmen:				
Day work	.800	40	.800	40
Night work	.875	40	.875	40
Part day and night work	.838	40	.838	40
Bench or machine operators:				
Day work	.750	40	.750	40
Night work	.825	40	.825	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	.854	48	.854	48
Second hands	.813	48	.813	48
Helpers	.594	48	.594	48
Bench hands	.792	48	.792	48
Des Moines, Iowa				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.625	48	.573	48
Journeymen	.563	48	.521	48
Helpers	.417	48	.417	48
Machine shops:				
Foremen	.750	40	------	------
Doughmixers	.650	40	------	------
Sponge mixers	.600	40	------	------
Ovenmen	.650	40	------	------
Bench men	.600	40	------	------
Machine men	.550	40	------	------
Detroit, Mich.				
Union A:				
First hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.750	48	.917	48
Second hands or benchmen	.667	48	.750	48
Union B:				
First hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.813	48	.875	48
Second hands or benchmen	.708	48	.750	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands, night:				
1 oven	1.356	45	1.311	45
2 ovens	1.400	45	1.356	45
Second hands	1.289	45	1.244	45
Duluth, Minn.				
Foremen	.693	44	.693	44
Mixers and ovenmen	.614	44	.614	44
Bench hands	.591	44	.585	44
Houston, Tex.				
Foremen	.729	48	------	------
Mixers, ovenmen, or spongers	.573	48	------	------
Bench or machine men	.521	48	------	------
Helpers	.375	48	------	------

[3] 15 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.
[4] 20 cents per hour more for work between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m.
[5] 20 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.

Table 4.—Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1935 and 1936—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Kansas City, Mo.				
Day work:				
Foremen	Dol. 0.979	40	Dol. 0.979	40
Mixers or spongers or ovenmen and drawers	.896	40	.896	40
Bench hands	.834	40	.834	40
Night work:				
Foremen	1.104	40	1.104	40
Mixers or spongers or ovenmen and drawers	1.021	40	1.021	40
Bench and under hands	.959	40	.959	40
Los Angeles, Calif.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands	1.188	48	1.125	48
Second hands	1.063	48	1.021	48
Madison, Wis.				
Foremen	.883	40	.883	40
Bench hands	.765	40	.765	40
Ovenmen, mixers, or spongers	.819	40	.819	40
Helpers	.625	40	.625	40
Manchester, N. H.				
Foremen or mixers	.792	48	.792	48
Bench hands	.625	48	.625	48
Second hands	.688	48	.688	48
Milwaukee, Wis.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or first hands	.809	47	.766	47
Bench hands, first	.723	47	.681	47
Bench hands, second	.638	47	.596	47
Moline, Ill.				
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)				
Newark, N. J.				
Union A:				
Foremen, ovenmen or mixers	1.000	40	1.000	40
Bench hands	.875	40	.875	40
Third hands	.725	40	.700	40
Union B:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.333	48	1.333	37½
Second hands or benchmen	1.200	48	1.200	37½
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.250	48	1.250	48
Second hands or mixers	1.146	48	1.146	48
New Haven, Conn.				
Foremen or mixers	.750	48	.750	48
Ovenmen	.713	48	.713	48
Benchmen	.675	48	.675	48
New Haven, Conn.—Con.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	Dol. 1.000	48	Dol. 1.000	48
Second hands	.917	48	.917	48
Third hands or helpers	.417	48	.417	48
New York, N. Y.				
Union A:				
Foremen	1.250	40	1.250	48
First hands	1.050	40	.979	48
Second hands	.950	40	.917	48
Helpers	.700	40	.583	48
Union B:				
First hands	1.021	48	------	------
Second hands	.938	48	------	------
Helpers	.750	48	------	------
Union C:				
First hands or ovenmen	.950	40	.979	48
Second hands	.850	40	.917	48
Third hands	.750	40	.625	48
Bohemian bakeries:				
First hands	1.071	35	1.100	40
Second hands or benchmen	1.000	35	.950	40
French bakeries:				
Day work:				
First hands	.875	48	------	------
Second hands	.833	48	------	------
Third hands	.792	48	------	------
Night work:				
First hands	.933	45	------	------
Second hands	.889	45	------	------
Third hands	.844	45	------	------
German bakeries:				
First hands	.979	48	------	------
Second hands	.917	48	------	------
Helpers	.854	48	------	------
Hebrew bakeries:				
Union A:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.125	48	1.042	48
Second hands	1.063	48	.979	48
Third hands	.813	48	.625	48
Union B:				
First hands	1.146	48	------	------
Second hands	.979	48	------	------
Helpers	.750	48	------	------
Union C:				
First hands	1.467	45	1.400	45
Second hands	1.333	45	1.267	45
Helpers	.933	45	.867	45
Union D:				
First hands	1.467	45	1.467	45
Second hands	1.333	45	1.333	45
Third hands	.933	45	.933	45
Oklahoma City, Okla.				
Day work:				
Foremen	.825	40	.825	40
Ovenmen or mixers	.725	40	.725	40
Benchmen	.625	40	.625	40
Night work:				
Foremen	.950	40	.950	40
Ovenmen or mixers	.800	40	.800	40
Benchmen	.700	40	.700	40

Table 4.—Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1935 and 1936—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Peoria, Ill.				
Machine bakeries:	*Dol.*		*Dol.*	
Foremen	0.929	42	0.905	42
Spongers or ovenmen	.810	42	.786	42
Bench or machine hands	.738	42	.714	42
Philadelphia, Pa.				
Mixer or ovenmen	.880	40	.880	40
Assistant mixer or assistant ovenmen	.750	40	.750	40
Bench or machine hands	.720	40	.720	40
Helpers or packers	.550	40	.550	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands	1.190	45	1.190	45
Second hands	1.133	45	1.133	45
Third hands	1.039	45	1.039	45
Fourth hands	.661	45	.661	45
Pittsburgh, Pa.				
Union A:				
Ovenmen or mixers:				
3-men shift	.733	37½	.733	37½
5-men shift	.933	37½	.933	37½
Benchmen, 7-men shift	.867	37½	.867	37½
Helpers	.533	37½	.533	37½
Union B:				
Ovenmen	.750	40	.700	40
Benchmen, molders or dividers	.700	40	.650	40
Helpers	.590	40	.550	40
Checkers	.535	40	.500	40
Packers	.430	40	.400	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.333	45	1.289	45
Second hands or mixers	1.267	45	1.222	45
Third hands or benchmen	1.178	45	1.133	45
Portland, Oreg.				
Foremen	.875	40	.875	40
Ovenmen or mixers	.840	40	.840	40
Bench or machine hands	.800	40	.800	40
Providence, R. I.				
Foremen or ovenmen	.938	48	.938	48
Second hands, mixers or benchmen	.865	48	.865	48
Rochester, N. Y.				
Hand bakeries:				
Foremen or first hands	.730	48	.730	48
Second hands, ovenmen or mixers	.677	48	.677	48
Third hands, or bench and machine hands	.642	48	.642	48
Machine bakeries:				
Foremen or first hands	.810	44	.876	40
Second hands, ovenmen or mixers	.740	44	.813	40
Benchmen	.700	44	.770	40
Rochester, N. Y.—Con.				
Hebrew bakeries:	*Dol.*		*Dol.*	
Ovenmen	1.031	48	1.100	45
Mixers or bench hands	.990	48	1.056	45
Third hands	.729	48	------	------
Rock Island, (Ill.) district				
Day work: Foremen, ovenmen or mixers	.673	48	.673	48
Night work:				
Foremen	.904	48	.904	48
Ovenmen or mixers	.798	48	.798	48
Benchmen	.656	48	.656	48
St. Louis, Mo.				
Small shops:				
Foremen	.833	48	.833	48
Second or bench hands	.750	48	.750	48
Machine bakeries:				
Foremen	1.100	40	1.100	40
Ovenmen or spongers	1.000	40	1.000	40
Assistant spongers	.950	40	.950	40
Scalers or first bench hands	.925	40	.925	40
Bench or machine hands	.900	40	.900	40
Helpers	.725	40	.725	40
Counters	.750	40	.750	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	1.146	48	1.042	48
Second hands	.979	48	.875	48
Third hands	.833	48	.625	48
St. Paul, Minn.				
Hand bakeries:				
Foremen	.646	48	.646	48
Bench hands	.583	48	.583	48
Ovenmen or mixers	.604	48	.604	48
Machine bakeries:				
Foremen	.705	44	.705	44
Bench hands	.636	44	.636	44
Ovenmen or mixers	.659	44	.659	44
San Francisco, Calif.				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.020	36	.992	36
Mixers	.970	36	.949	36
Bench hands	.950	36	.927	36
Flour blenders	.900	36	.798	36
Helpers	.750	36	.733	36
Small bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	.850	42	.850	42
Mixers	.850	42	.813	42
Bench hands	.794	42	.795	42
Helpers	.571	42	------	------
French and Italian bakeries:				
Foremen, ovenmen, and mixers	.817	45	------	------
Bench hands	.733	45	------	------
Seattle, Wash.				
Foremen	1.130	36	1.130	36
Mixers, ovenmen, or machine men	1.070	36	1.070	36
Bench hands	1.000	36	1.000	36
Helpers, A	.722	36	.722	36
Helpers, B	.833	36	.833	36

Table 4.—Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1935 and 1936—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Scranton, Pa.				
	Dol.		*Dol.*	
Mixers, rate A	0.725	40	0.725	40
Mixers, rate B	.650	40	.600	40
Bench hands, first	1.125	40	1.125	40
Ovenmen, peel	.825	40	.825	40
Traveling oven tenders	.525	40	.525	40
Molders	.775	40	.775	40
Dividers	.675	40	.675	40
Helpers	.550	40	.550	40
Pan setters and greasers	.625	40	.625	40
Bench helpers	.525	40	.525	40
South Bend, Ind.				
First hands	.625	48	.625	48
Second hands	.521	48	.521	48
Spokane, Wash.				
Foremen, mixers, and ovenmen	.970	40	.970	40
Bench or machine hands	.920	40	.920	40
Helpers	.650	40	.650	40
Springfield, Mass.				
Foremen	.833	48	.833	48
Second hands, ovenmen, and mixers	.729	48	.729	48
Bench hands	.625	48	.625	48
Washington, D. C.				
Day work:	*Dol.*		*Dol.*	
Journeymen	1.020	40	1.020	40
Helpers	.550	40	.550	40
Night work:				
Journeymen	1.220	40	1.220	40
Helpers	.650	40	.650	40
Wichita, Kans.				
Mixers	.675	40	.650	40
Ovenmen	.650	40	.613	40
Bench or machine hands	.625	40	.613	40
Helpers	.450	40	.450	40
Worcester, Mass.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	.938	48	.938	48
Second hands	.833	48	.833	48
Youngstown, Ohio				
Foremen	.650	48	.650	48
Ovenmen and mixers	.600	48	.600	48
Bench hands	.550	48	.550	48
Helpers, female	.250	48	.250	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	.771	48	.729	48
Mixers	.709	48	.656	48
Bench hands	.615	48	.615	48
Helpers	.458	48	.375	48

Wages and Employment Conditions of Union Street-Railway Employees, May 15, 1936

INCREASES in wage rates per hour of street-railway motormen and conductors, and bus operators [1] occurred between 1935 and 1936 in over one-half of the cities included in a survey of union scales of wages and hours made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[2] Although the increases ranged from 1 to 7 cents per hour, 1, 1½, 2, or 3 cents per hour increases were the most frequent. The increases were confined in large part to the smaller cities and to the cities having the lower rates.

The lowest rate, 35 cents an hour, was for bus drivers in New Orleans. The highest rate, 89 cents an hour, was in Pittsburgh, for operators of one-man cars with over 1 year's experience.

As table 1 indicates, the average hourly rate of wages rose from 66.0 cents in 1934 to 68.8 cents in 1935, and to 69.2 cents in 1936. In all 3 years the largest groups of union members were working under agreements setting minimum rates of from 60 to 70 and 70 to 80 cents per hour. In 1936 nearly 80 percent of the union members were in these classes.

Table 1.—Union Wage Scales of Street-Railway Employees, 1934 to 1936

Item	May 15, 1936	May 15, 1935 [1]	May 15, 1934 [1]
Number of members	50,184	47,503	45,291
Number of cities covered	49	48	48
Weighted average of rates per hour [1]	$0.692	$0.688	$0.660
Percent of members whose rates were—			
Under 40 cents	(2)	(2)	0.1
40 and under 50 cents	0.6	1.5	1.7
50 and under 60 cents	11.5	9.1	17.0
60 and under 70 cents	30.5	36.3	33.6
70 and under 80 cents	49.4	44.7	37.2
80 and under 90 cents	8.0	8.4	10.4

[1] The averages are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. The averages for 1935 and 1934 are slightly less than those reported last year, due to a revision in the weighting for 1 city.

[2] Less than one-tenth of 1 percent.

Pay for Overtime and Extra Work

THE rate for overtime work is time and a half in all but a few cases where straight pay or slightly higher than straight rates are provided. Many agreements specify that overtime must be paid for and cannot be canceled by granting time off later.

[1] Motormen, conductors, and bus drivers on city and city-suburban lines operated by the same company.

[2] This report is the result of a survey of union wages and provisions in the union agreements of street-railway employees in 49 cities. Similar studies have been made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics each year since 1921.

Because uninterrupted streetcar and bus service requires a supply of extra or substitute employees to be constantly on call, such workers are usually required to report periodically during the working day at a central place. These workers are generally paid for a specified number of hours on duty, whether or not they are actually put to work. Other types of pay provisions establish pay at the usual rate for time spent waiting for repairs, answering complaints, making out reports, etc. Somewhat higher minimum rates are established in most cases for work with snow equipment, on routes involving delivery of newspapers, and for time spent in instructing new employees. If an employee is temporarily transferred to a new job, he is paid whichever rate is higher, that of his own or the new job.

Hours per Day and Week

THE 8-hour day is provided in a great majority of union agreements, although the 8½- and the 9-hour day are fairly common. In a few cases the maximum hours are as low as 6 or as high as 10 per day. The usual workweek is 6 days. In only seven agreements was a 5-day week established, while in two, work was required on every day of the week. In two agreements a special provision for substitute workers guarantees them a minimum of 30 and 36 hours of work per week, respectively.

Some of the agreements allow members to work overtime, although they are granted the right to have substitutes to perform such work. Others limit overtime by specifying that at least 8 hours' time must elapse between required work periods.

Holidays and Vacations

BECAUSE continuous service is necessary, these workers do not observe the usual holidays. In most cases provision is made for 1 day off in 7, or 2 consecutive days off in 8. These weekly rest days are regularly scheduled. In some cases certain other holidays may be taken off, this privilege being granted on the basis of seniority or in order of indication of preference.

Only a few agreements provide for 1- or 2- week vacations with pay after a specified period of service. The granting of leave without pay for a limited time (usually up to 2 months) is a common provision. Leave without pay is specifically provided for employees wishing to absent themselves on union business. The length of such leave is often limited to from 1 to 3 months unless the time is extended by mutual agreement. In some cases special arrangements must be made if more than a given number of employees wish to take such leave at the same time. All of these leave rights carry the concomitant right to reinstatement on the job without loss of seniority standing.

Employment Provisions

MEMBERSHIP in the union is required in only a minority of the agreements. When required, it is extended to employees who have completed the probationary employment of 2 weeks to 3 months. In two cases the companies recommend that all employees join the union. In several cases the position of the union is strengthened by the company's assuming the obligation of collecting for union dues through the check-off system. A number of agreements provide that members suspended or expelled by the union must be discharged from the service. In only one of the closed-union-shop agreements is the union designated as the agency to furnish new men when needed.

The regulation of scheduled runs or routes of street-railway workers is one of the most important elements in the labor contract. These provisions are too varied and detailed in character to be described here. The general method of assigning runs is through a periodic bidding (from two to four times a year) by each regular employee for the desired schedule. Assignment is then made according to seniority. The same bidding system is instituted for new jobs established when one type of service is abandoned for another.

Seniority likewise governs the movement of personnel in lay-off, reemployment, and promotion. The unit of seniority varies from a rating by department of service to a company-wide standing. The right of transfer, however, usually results in seniority standing according to length of service with the company rather than in a particular branch or department. A specified period of notice is usually required before lay-offs go into effect. Similar notice of intention to reemploy must be given before an employee can be considered as resigning from the service and forfeiting his seniority rights if he does not answer the call. Occasionally a time limit of 1 or 2 years is set on the period of lay-off during which a worker's seniority status remains intact. This limitation also applies to workers on lay-off due to disability. Promotions are made in accordance with seniority unless an employee is not considered qualified. The possibility of abuse in making such exceptions to the seniority rule is curtailed by requirements for notification of vacancies before they are permanently filled, for written statement of reasons if seniority is not observed, or for the granting of a trial on the job to the senior employee.

Rates Paid in Each City

THE rates per hour and the overtime rates in force on May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1935, in each city are shown in the following table. Since the hours of work are irregular, depending upon the "run", it is impracticable to tabulate them.

Table 2.—Union Rates of Wages per Hour of Street-Railway Employees, May 15, 1935, and May 15, 1936, by Cities

City	Rates of wages per hour			
	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Regular	Overtime[1]	Regular	Overtime[1]
Atlanta, Ga.				
2-man cars:				
First 9 months	$0.500	1½	$0.470	1½
10–18 months	.550	1½	.520	1½
After 1½ years	.580	1½	.550	1½
1-man cars:				
First 9 months	.570	1½	.540	1½
10–18 months	.620	1½	.590	1½
After 1½ years	.650	1½	.620	1½
Bus drivers	.600	1½	.550	1½
Birmingham, Ala.				
2-man cars:				
First year	.525	1½	.510	1½
Second year	.545	1½	.530	1½
Third year	.575	1½	.560	1½
1-man cars:				
First year	.575	1½	.560	1½
Second year	.595	1½	.580	1½
Third year	.625	1½	.610	1½
Bus drivers:				
First year	.575	1½	.560	1½
Second year	.595	1½	.580	1½
Third year	.625	1½	.610	1½
Boston, Mass.				
Surface lines:				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.595	1½	.580	1½
4–12 months	.655	1½	.640	1½
After 1 year	.750	1½	.735	1½
1-man cars	.850	1½	.835	1½
Rapid transit lines:				
Guards:				
First 3 months	.595	1½	.580	1½
4–12 months	.655	1½	.640	1½
After 1 year	.750	1½	.735	1½
Motormen: After 1 year	.800	1½	.785	1½
Bus drivers	.850	1½	.835	1½
Butte, Mont.				
1-man cars	.700	1	.700	1
Charleston, S. C.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.490	1½	------	------
4–12 months	.510	1½	------	------
After 1 year	.530	1½	.500	1½
Bus drivers	.530	1½	.500	1½
Chicago, Ill.				
Surface lines:				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.680	1½	.680	1½
4–12 months	.710	1½	.710	1½
After 1 year	.730	1½	.730	1½
Owl cars	.750	1½	.750	1½
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.760	1½	.760	1½
4–12 months	.790	1½	.790	1½
After 1 year	.810	1½	.810	1½
Owl cars	.830	1½	.830	1½
Bus drivers:				
Gas and trolley	.810	1½	.810	1½
Owl, gas and trolley	.830	1½	.830	1½
Elevated lines:				
Conductors:				
First year	.678	1½	.678	1½
After 1 year	.698	1½	.698	1½
Chicago, Ill.—Contd.				
Elevated lines—Contd.				
Motormen:				
First 3 months	$0.687	1½	$0.687	1½
4–12 months	.696	1½	.696	1½
After 1 year	.741	1½	.741	1½
Guards, regular	.678	1½	.678	1½
Guards, extra:				
First 3 months	.651	1½	.651	1½
4–12 months	.660	1½	.660	1½
After 1 year	.669	1½	.669	1½
Cincinnati, Ohio				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.550	1½	.550	1½
4–12 months	.580	1½	.580	1½
After 1 year	.600	1½	.600	1½
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.620	1½	.620	1½
4–12 months	.650	1½	.650	1½
After 1 year	.670	1½	.670	1½
Bus drivers:				
Valley	.670	1½	.650	1½
City	.660	1½	.630	1½
Cleveland, Ohio				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.610	1½	.600	1½
4–12 months	.640	1½	.630	1½
After 1 year	.660	1½	.650	1½
Bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.660	1½	.650	1½
4–12 months	.690	1½	.680	1½
After 1 year	.710	1½	.700	1½
Davenport, Iowa				
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)				
Dayton, Ohio				
Motormen:				
First 3 months	.530	1½	.500	1½
4–12 months	.550	1½	.530	1½
After 1 year	.570	1½	.550	1½
Denver, Colo.				
2-man cars	.580	1	.570	1
1-man cars and bus drivers	.630	[2] 1	.620	1
Des Moines, Iowa				
1-man cars or bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.580	1½	.550	1½
4–12 months	.610	1½	.580	1½
After 1 year	.653	1½	.600	1½
Detroit, Mich.				
2-man cars	.750	1½	.750	1½
1-man cars	.800	1½	.800	1½
Bus drivers	.800	1½	.800	1½
Erie, Pa.				
Bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.535	1¼	.525	1
4–12 months	.560	1¼	.550	1
After 1 year	.585	1¼	.575	1

[1] Regular rate multiplied by number shown.

[2] 1½ after 14 hours

Table 2.—Union Rates of Wages per Hour of Street-Railway Employees, May 15, 1935, and May 15, 1936, by Cities—Continued

City	Rates of wages per hour			
	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Regular	Overtime[1]	Regular	Overtime[1]
Grand Rapids, Mich.				
Bus operators	$0.440	1	$0.400	1
Indianapolis, Ind.				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First year	.520	------	------	------
After 1 year	.530	------	------	------
After 2 years	.540	------	------	------
After 3 years	.550	------	------	------
After 4 years	.560	------	------	------
Fifth to ninth year	.570	------	------	------
Ninth to tenth year	.580	------	------	------
After 10 years	.590	------	------	------
Little Rock, Ark.				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 6 months	.400	1½	.400	1½
7–12 months	.420	1½	.420	1½
Second year	.450	1½	.450	1½
Third year	.480	1½	.480	1½
After 3 years	.540	1½	.540	1½
North Little Rock Division:				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 6 months	.400	1½	.400	1½
7–12 months	.410	1½	.410	1½
Second year	.420	1½	.420	1½
After 2 years	.450	1½	.450	1½
Madison, Wis.				
Bus drivers:				
First 6 months	.450	1	.390	1
7–12 months	.480	1	.410	1
13–18 months	.500	1	.430	1
After 18 months	.520	1	.450	1
Manchester, N. H.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.500	1½	.500	1½
4–12 months	.550	1½	.550	1½
After 1 year	.600	1½	.600	1½
Memphis, Tenn.				
2-man cars:				
First year	.495	1½	.480	1½
Second year	.545	1½	.530	1½
After 2 years	.595	1½	.580	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First year	.545	1½	.530	1½
Second year	.595	1½	.580	1½
After 2 years	.645	1½	.630	1½
Milwaukee, Wis.				
2-man cars:				
First year	.560	1½	.550	1½
Second year	.580	1½	.570	1½
Third year	.600	1½	.590	1½
Fourth year	.620	1½	.610	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First year	.610	1½	.600	1½
Second year	.630	1½	.620	1½
Third year	.650	1½	.640	1½
Fourth year	.670	1½	.660	1½
Minneapolis, Minn.				
2-man cars:				
First year	$0.520	1½	$0.500	1½
Second year	.550	1½	.530	1½
Third year	.580	1½	.560	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First year	.560	1½	.530	1½
Second year	.590	1½	.560	1½
Third year	.630	1½	.600	1½
Moline, Ill.				
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)				
Newark, N. J.				
1-man cars and bus drivers	.590	1½	.590	1½
New Haven, Conn.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.570	1½	.550	1½
4–12 months	.600	1½	.580	1½
After 1 year	.640	1½	.620	1½
Bus drivers (city)	.640	1½	.620	1½
New Orleans, La.				
Bus drivers:				
First 5 months	.350	1	------	------
6–12 months	.360	1	------	------
13–18 months	.370	1	------	------
19–24 months	.380	1	.380	1
25–30 months	.390	1	.390	1
31–48 months	.400	1	.400	1
After 4 years	.410	1	.410	1
New York, N. Y.				
Bus drivers:				
First year	.550	1½	------	------
Second year	.570	1½	------	------
Third year	.600	1½	------	------
Fourth year	.630	1½	------	------
Fifth year	.700	1½	------	------
Oklahoma City, Okla.				
1-man cars:				
City:				
First 6 months	.455	1½	.420	1
After 6 months	.528	1½	.494	1
Interurban	.538	1½	.494	1
Bus drivers:				
First 6 months	.455	1½	.420	1
After 6 months	.538	1½	.494	1
Peoria, Ill.				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
Less than 1 year	.560	[2]	.540	1½
1–2 years	.580	[2]	.560	1½
After 2 years	.600	[2]	.580	1½
Pittsburgh, Pa.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.810	1½	.810	1½
4–12 months	.870	1½	.870	1½
After 1 year	.890	1½	.890	1½
Portland, Maine				
1-man cars	.600	1½	.600	1½

[1] Regular rate multiplied by number shown.
[2] Regular rate plus 12½ cents an hour.

Table 2.—Union Rates of Wages per Hour of Street-Railway Employees, May 15, 1935, and May 15, 1936, by Cities—Continued

City	Rates of wages per hour			
	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Regular	Overtime [1]	Regular	Overtime [1]
Portland, Oreg.				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	$0.600	1½	$0.600	1½
4–9 months	.630	1½	.630	1½
After 9 months	.650	1½	.650	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.670	1½	.670	1½
4–9 months	.700	1½	.700	1½
After 9 months	.720	1½	.720	1½
Providence, R. I.				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.650	1½	.650	1½
4–12 months	.680	1½	.680	1½
After 1 year	.700	1½	.700	1½
Rochester, N. Y.				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.505	1½	------	------
4–12 months	.525	1½	------	------
After 1 year	.545	1½	.545	(4)
Subway	.565	1½	.565	------
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.555	1½	------	------
4–12 months	.575	1½	------	------
After 1 year	.595	1½	.595	(4)
Bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.525	1½	------	------
4–12 months	.545	1½	------	------
After 1 year	.565	1½	.565	(4)
Rock Island (Ill.) district				
1-man cars and bus drivers.				
First 6 months	.545	1½	------	------
7–12 months	.565	1½	------	------
After 1 year	.585	1½	.525	1½
St. Louis, Mo.				
2-man cars:				
First year	.502	1½	------	------
Second year	.554	1½	------	------
Third year	.607	1½	------	------
After 3 years	.650	1½	.650	1½
1-man cars, and bus drivers:				
First year	.572	1½	------	------
Second year	.624	1½	------	------
Third year	.677	1½	------	------
After 3 years	.720	1½	.720	1½
St. Paul, Minn.				
2-man cars:				
First year	.520	1½	.500	1½
Second year	.550	1½	.530	1½
Third year	.580	1½	.560	1½
1-man cars, and bus drivers:				
First year	.560	1½	.530	1½
Second year	.590	1½	.560	1½
Third year	.630	1½	.600	1½
Salt Lake City, Utah				
Interurban lines:				
2-man cars:				
Passenger	$0.500	1	$0.470	1
Freight	.520	1	.490	1
1-man cars	.500	1	.470	1
City lines:				
1-man cars, and bus drivers:				
First year	.460	1½	.450	1½
After 1 year	.530	1½	.520	1½
San Antonio, Tex.				
Bus drivers	.650	1½	.610	1½
San Francisco, Calif.				
2-man cars:				
First 6 months	.525	1½	.525	1½
7–12 months	.550	1½	.550	1½
13–18 months	.575	1½	.575	1½
19 months–2½ years	.600	1½	.600	1½
After 2½ years	.625	1½	.625	1½
1-man cars:				
19 months–2½ years	.650	1½	------	------
After 2½ years	.675	1½	------	------
Bus drivers: After 2½ years	.675	1½	.675	1½
Municipal lines:				
2-man cars	.750	1½	.750	1½
Motor-coach drivers	.800	1½	.800	1½
Cable-cars: Gripmen and conductors	.625	1	.625	1
Scranton, Pa.				
1-man cars and bus drivers	.690	1½	.680	1½
Seattle, Wash.				
Interurban lines	.710	1½	.710	1½
Municipal lines:				
Less than 2 years	.700	1½	.700	1½
After 2 years:				
2-man cars:				
Conductors	.740	1½	.740	1½
Operators or gripmen	.810	1½	.810	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers	.800	1½	.800	1½
South Bend, Ind.				
1-man cars and bus drivers	.450	1½	.400	------
Springfield, Mass.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.560	1½	.560	1½
4–9 months	.610	1½	.610	1½
After 9 months	.650	1½	.650	1½
Bus drivers	.650	1½	.650	1½

[1] Regular rate multiplied by number shown.
[4] Regular rate plus 20 cents an hour.

Table 2.—Union Rates of Wages per Hour of Street-Railway Employees, May 15, 1935, and May 15, 1936, by Cities—Continued

City	Rates of wages per hour			
	May 15, 1936		May 15, 1935	
	Regular	Overtime [1]	Regular	Overtime [1]
Toledo, Ohio				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 6 months	$0.570	1½	$0.550	1½
7–12 months	.590	1½	.570	1½
After 1 year	.620	1½	.600	1½
Washington, D. C.				
2-man cars:				
First 3 months	.590	1½	.590	1½
4–12 months	.630	1½	.630	1½
After 1 year	.650	1½	.650	1½
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
First 3 months	.650	1½	.650	1½
4–12 months	.690	1½	.690	1½
After 1 year	.710	1½	.710	1½
Wichita, Kans.				
Interurban lines:				
2-man cars:				
Passenger	$0.470	1	$0.470	1
Freight	.520	1	.520	1
Worcester, Mass.				
1-man cars:				
First 3 months	.630	1½	.630	1½
4–12 months	.680	1½	.680	1½
After 1 year	.720	1½	.720	1½
Bus drivers	.720	1½	.720	1½
Youngstown, Ohio				
1-man cars and bus drivers:				
Rate A	.610	1½	.610	1½
Rate B	.650	1½	.650	1½
Rural lines: 1-man cars	.650	1½	.610	1½

[1] Regular rate multiplied by number shown.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions in Intercity Motor-Transport Industries

WEEKLY hours in 1935 averaged 42.7 for regular bus drivers employed by independent companies and 43.8 hours for those employed on railroad bus lines; average weekly earnings were $27.85 and $33.89. A report [1] recently issued by the Federal Coordinator of Transportation, based upon material collected from various sources, shows striking variations in average weekly working time and average hourly and weekly earnings as between drivers employed by independent companies and railroads, and as between drivers employed in local operations and those in intercity transportation. A general tendency toward shortening hours and increasing average hourly earnings was noted, however.

Scope of Report

THE report is divided into three parts, covering motorbus transportation, motortruck transportation, and considerations common to both methods of transportation. It covers earnings and hours of

[1] Federal Coordinator of Transportation. Hours, Wages, and Working Conditions in the Intercity Motor Transport Industries. Pt. I: Motorbus transportation. Pt. II: Motortruck transportation. Pt. III: Considerations common to motorbus and motortruck transportation, Washington, 1936.

Similar studies have been made for air, water transportation, and a number of studies relative to railway transportation. For summaries of reports covering air and water transportation, see Monthly Labor Review, September 1936 (p. 678) and December 1936 (p. 1492).

the various classes of employees, State regulation of hours of service, qualifications for bus and truck drivers as imposed by the States and by private companies, motor-vehicle accidents as related to driver fatigue, and labor relations in the motor-transport industries.

The report was based upon the following sources of information: The field study of wages and hours in intercity motor bus and truck transportation made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in July 1933, covering principally independent operators of busses and trucks in 48 States and the District of Columbia; the results of a questionnaire sent by the Federal Coordinator to steam railroads and intercity electric railways in 1933, covering bus and truck operations in which railroads were interested; data collected by the National Recovery Administration under the industrial code for the motor bus and truck industries, which covered March 1934; information from two surveys conducted in 1935, one being a field study including independent operators and the other a mail-questionnaire survey of busses and trucks operated by affiliates of steam railroads; and, finally, information based on road checks made by the State highway patrols in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, covering intercity truck movements.

The Office of Federal Coordinator of Transportation expired before the release of this report. The Motor Carrier Act, passed in 1935, gave the Interstate Commerce Commission power to establish reasonable requirements with respect to qualifications, maximum hours of service of employees, and safety of operations and equipment. No conclusions or recommendations in regard to those subjects were included, therefore, and the Coordinator's report was confined to analysis of the factual data.

Hours and Earnings of Motorbus and Motortruck Drivers

Drivers occupy an important position in the industry. In motorbus transportation, they are classified as "regular", "relief", and "extra." The regular drivers comprised 91 percent of the total number of all drivers included in the 1935 field study and railroad reports. In motortruck transportation, the same studies showed 86 percent of the truck crews were carried as drivers, and the remainder, with few exceptions, were designated as helpers or laborers. Of the 11,054 bus employees scheduled, 5,405, or 48.9 percent, were drivers, and the 7,697 crew members were 59.4 percent of the 12,951 employees of the intercity truck operations covered.

Data from the 1935 field study of independent companies showed that regular bus drivers averaged 42.7 hours and earned $27.85 per week, or an average of 65.2 cents per hour. Relief drivers worked an average of 32.4 hours and earned an average of of $19.46 per week, or 60.1 cents per hour. Railroad bus reports for 1935, on the other

hand, indicated that regular drivers averaged 77.4 cents per hour or $33.89 for a workweek of 43.8 hours. Relief drivers earned an average of $25.50 per week and of 72.0 cents per hour for an average week of 35.4 hours.

Truck drivers on intercity operations, as reported by the independent operators in the 1935 field study, averaged 50.7 hours on duty and earned $28.33 per week, an average of 55.9 cents per hour. Those included in the railroad truck reports earned on the average 56.8 cents per hour and $27.89 per week for an average workweek of 49.1 hours. On local operations, which use pick-up and delivery truck crews for "feeding" and taking from the intercity trucks, the drivers averaged 50.8 hours and $27.15 per week, or an average of 53.4 cents per hour, according to the field study of independent operators; and averaged 57.8 cents per hour and $27.83 per week of 48.1 hours, according to the railroad truck reports.

The independent companies used drivers' helpers on intercity operations only. These helpers averaged 46.6 hours per week, and earned on the average 37.5 cents per hour and $17.49 per week. The other operators, however, used drivers' helpers on both intercity and local operations, the intercity averages being 40.4 hours and $18.77 per week, and 46.5 cents per hour, whereas the local averages were 30.3 hours and $13.76 per week and 45.4 cents per hour.

The field studies for 1933 and 1935, indicate that regular bus drivers worked 8.4 fewer hours per week and earned 6.8 cents more per hour on the average in 1935 than in 1933. Intercity truck drivers in the same studies averaged 1.6 fewer hours and 8.7 cents more per hour in 1935 than in 1933. In 1935, the railroad bus drivers worked on the average 5.0 hours less and had an hourly average of 15.0 cents more, and railroad intercity truck drivers worked on the average 8.8 fewer hours and had average hourly earnings of 16.6 cents more than in 1933.

Hours and Earnings of Maintenance Forces

MAINTENANCE forces in both motorbus and motortruck transportation consist primarily of mechanics and garage service men. Of the companies included in the studies of 1935, it was found that more of the bus companies employed their own maintenance workers than did the truck companies. This was probably due to the fact that the truck companies included had very few standard routes and found it more economical to have their maintenance work done in public garages either in their operating city or along the route. The 1935 field study of independent operators revealed that motorbus maintenance employees averaged 48.3 hours and $26.56 per week or 55.0 cents per hour, while motortruck maintenance employees averaged 50.2 hours and $27.42 per week or 54.6 cents per hour. The railroad reports for 1935 indicated that the motorbus maintenance employees

were working an average of 48.9 hours per week with average earnings of $29 per week and of 59.3 cents per hour, while motortruck maintenance employees earned $24.56 per week or 53.0 cents per hour for a workweek of 46.3 hours. In both industries, foremen usually had the highest earnings per week and per hour, with mechanics, service men, and mechanics' helpers following them in the order named.

The 1935 studies showed for maintenance employees a shortening of the hours worked per week and an increase in hourly earnings as compared with 1933. According to the field studies of independent operators, the average hours of work of motorbus employees decreased by 5.8 and the average earnings per hour increased by 6.7 cents; motortruck employees earned on the average 6.1 cents more per hour and worked on the average 3.1 fewer hours per week. The railroad bus and truck reports for the 2 years show that bus employees' average hours of work were 2.6 fewer per week and their average hourly earnings were 7.3 cents higher, while truck employees earned on the average 4.5 cents more per hour and worked on the average 12.4 fewer hours per week.

Hours and Earnings of Office, Station, and Terminal Employees

OFFICE and station workers employed by motorbus operators accounted for from 21 to 25 percent of all persons in the companies covered by the several surveys. These employees consist of superintendents, dispatchers, agents, ticket sellers, baggage attendants, janitors, traffic solicitors, bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, typists, and others. According to the 1935 field study the employees in independent companies averaged 47 hours of work and $22.25 per week, or 47.3 cents per hour. The railroad bus reports for 1935 showed hourly and weekly earnings of 53.5 cents and $26, respectively, with an average workweek of 48.6 hours. Between the years 1933 and 1935, the independent operators decreased the workweek 4.0 hours and increased the average hourly earnings 1.2 cents, while the railroad operators decreased the workweek 4.9 hours and increased hourly earnings 3.0 cents.

In motortruck transportation, the office and terminal employees consist of foremen, dispatchers, freight handlers, janitors, watchmen, agents, solicitors, bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, telephone operators, and others. These workers comprised from 18 to 34 percent of the total number of employees included in the various surveys. Their hours and earnings were slightly more in the 1935 field study of independent companies than those of the station and office employees in the motorbus industry, the average earnings per week and per hour being respectively $24.10 and 50.0 cents for an average workweek of 48.2 hours. The operators in which the railroads were

interested paid their employees on the average of $18.38 per week and 47.5 cents per hour for an average workweek of 38.7 hours. Compared to the 1933 averages, these figures represented a reduction of 0.8 hour per week for the independent operators, and of 6.0 hours for the other group of operators. As regards earnings per hour, the averages increased 5.2 cents for the independent operators and 4.7 cents for the other operators.

State Regulation of Hours of Service

THE Coordinator's report showed that 43 States and the District of Columbia had regulatory measures governing the hours of service of employees.[2] State regulations consist mainly of (1) prohibition of continuous service in excess of a specified maximum of hours, (2) prohibition of aggregate or noncontinuous service in excess of a specified maximum number of hours within a specified period, and (3) requirement of a minimum number of hours of rest. Frequently there are exceptions applying under emergency conditions, and requirements related to enforcement and administration. For the most part, the regulations are confined to "drivers", although in a few States they are extended to helpers and attendants.

There has been a considerable variation in State practice. The States face a difficulty in any attempt at regulation of hours of service, because a driver's hours in any particular State may be within the prescribed limit, but when added to his time on duty before entering the State they may exceed the limit and defeat the purpose of regulation. A number of States have therefore provided that time on duty before entering the State shall be included in computing drivers' maximum hours.

The difference between driving hours and total time on duty is substantial, particularly in the case of truck drivers. In the 1933 field study it was found that time en route by intercity bus drivers averaged 87 percent of their total time on duty, while time en route of drivers and helpers employed by intercity trucking companies averaged but 73 percent of their total time on duty.

One of the most effective means of keeping check on hours of work is found in the rule of the New Hampshire Commission, requiring each truck driver to carry with him a record of his tour of duty on a special form. The record shows the date and time at which the driver began and completed his tour of duty, the entries being made at the time those events occur. These forms are forwarded to the commission at the end of each month, while a similar record is kept at the home terminal by the carrier.

[2] The five States without such measures were Louisiana, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and West Virginia.

Qualifications of Bus and Truck Drivers

NINE-TENTHS of all intercity bus companies and about two-thirds of the intercity trucking companies included in the 1935 surveys had minimum hiring ages, below which applicants for drivers' jobs were not accepted. The lowest minimum age requirement reported in the bus industry was 20 years and in the truck industry 18 years; in both industries the highest minimum age requirement was 27 years. The most frequent requirement was a minimum of 21 years for truck drivers and 24 or 25 years for bus drivers.

Maximum age limits were reported by 52 percent of the bus and truck companies covered in 1935. The 40-year-old applicant found himself barred from employment as a driver by nearly all of the bus and three-fourths of the trucking companies that reported on the subject.

A large number of both the bus and truck companies included in the 1935 inquiries specifically indicated that only experienced drivers were hired. The experience required ranged from 6 months to 5 years, with 2 years being the most common. In the trucking industry, the practice of promoting employees from helpers to drivers seems to have been fairly common, the period served as helper ranging from several weeks to several years. Furthermore, where the operator was engaged in both intercity and local hauling, it was quite often the practice to start the new driver on local duty and then transfer him to intercity hauling. Over half of the bus operators and 43 percent of the truck operators reported in 1935 that applicants for drivers were required to possess some degree of mechanical skill. The 1935 returns also indicated clearly that motor bus and truck operators checked applicants' past records, as attested to by references and recommendations of former employers.

Fifty-five percent of the bus companies included in the 1935 study required prospective drivers to undergo a physical examination, while only 16 percent of the trucking companies had this requirement.

Motor-Vehicle Accidents in Relation to Driver Fatigue

NO SPECIAL investigation was undertaken for the purpose of the report. The data on accident statistics—assembled for the most part by the National Safety Council, from Government and other sources—showed a steady increase in the number of motor-vehicle fatalities, with a slightly larger percentage occurring in rural districts than in metropolitan areas. The figures on accidents per vehicle-mile, as reported by a number of fleet owners, indicated that between the years of 1932 and 1936 there was an important decrease in the number of accidents per 100,000 vehicle-miles, the intercity busses and trucks making a much better showing as to safety than the

city busses and trucks. The figure for intercity busses was 1.04 accidents per 100,000 vehicle-miles in 1932–33, which declined to 0.92 in 1935–36. With city busses the number of accidents for the same years were respectively 6.00 and 1.84. Trucks, on the other hand, had rates of 2.09 and 1.23 on intercity work and 5.19 and 3.55 on city work respectively for the years 1932–33 and 1935–36.

The reports of the National Safety Council further showed that of 17,521 fatal accidents in 18 States during the year 1935, only 3,047 or 18.2 percent were chargeable to trucks, and 157 or 0.9 percent were chargeable to busses. The remaining fatalities were attributable to passenger cars, taxicabs, and motorcycles.

A number of bus and truck operating companies have inaugurated, in the interest of safe driving, bonuses payable to those who drive without accidents for a specified number of days, weeks, or months. Rewards or recognition, other than bonus payments, for no-accident records were also reported by several bus and trucking companies. Among bus companies, such recognition took the form of gold stars, medals, safety badges, and like insignia, which were often given weight in determining promotions. In some instances, complete uniforms were given to bus drivers having safe-driving records. Among truck operators, rewards for no-accident records took the form of certificates of merit, medals, watches, and prize awards in safety contests.

The National Safety Council recently published a report of a preliminary investigation of the effect of fatigue in producing motor-vehicle accidents.[3]

From information available for 14 States, it was found that of all reported motor-vehicle accidents resulting in death or personal injury, the proportion caused by sleeping or over-tired drivers averaged 1 percent. In the opinion of the council, the facts point to 20,000 such accidents per year, which is one-third of those caused by intoxicated drivers, and one-fifth of those caused by defects or faulty equipment of motor vehicles. The actual conditions may be worse than the available figures indicate, as the only cases ordinarily reported involving fatigued or sleeping drivers are those in which the driver has voluntarily acknowledged his condition.

It must be stated, however, that driver fatigue may result from causes other than excessive hours of work. Failure to rest in periods available may also result in partial fatigue before entering upon duty.

A summary of the general nature of fatigue and fatigue measurement as related to motor-vehicle accidents is included in the Federal Coordinator's report.

Labor Relations in Intercity Motor Transportation

THE employees engaged in intercity motor bus and truck operation are not extensively organized in labor unions. There are four na-

[3] National Safety Council, Inc., Too Long at the Wheel. Chicago, 1935.

tional organizations: (1) The Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America; (2) The International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Stablemen, and Helpers; (3) The Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen; and (4) The International Association of Machinists. The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen has extended its membership to bus drivers in some instances, but it has made no general effort to organize in that field. There are also some company unions scattered throughout the industry.

The field study of 1935 showed that 28 percent of the 223 reporting motortruck companies (with 45 percent of the employees) engaged in some kind of collective bargaining with trade-unions, but only 3 percent (with 10 percent of the employees) reported written agreements with such unions. Of the motorbus companies only 7 percent, with 17 percent of the workers, reported collective bargaining with labor unions. Eleven percent of the employees on intercity truck operations and 19 percent on intercity busses belonged to company unions.

Prior to 1933 labor disputes in the industry were rather infrequent. An all-time peak was reached in 1934, however, when 68,000 employees were involved in controversies. The greater number of these controversies involved organized rather than unorganized employees. In disputes referred to the National Labor Relations Board, or its predecessors, the majority of the decisions were in favor of the employees, but difficulties have been encountered in the enforcement of these decisions, as a number of the employers have appealed the rulings, and the question of the constitutionality of the present National Labor Relations Act is now before the Supreme Court.

The report calls attention to suggestions for national legislation made on behalf of transport employees during the hearings on the Motor Carrier Act, 1935, including the suggestion that the 8-hour basic workday, with time and one-half for hours worked in excess of 8, be made applicable to motor-transport employees engaged in interstate and foreign commerce. Definite limitations upon hours of service were also recommended, including a 10-hour maximum with 12 hours' rest and the limitation of work to 5 days in a 7-day period. It was suggested that employment be limited to individuals 21 years of age or over and that motor-carrier employees be guaranteed the rights secured to railroad employees by the Railway Labor Act, including freedom of organization for collective bargaining. None of these proposals were acted upon by Congress, except that the Motor Carrier Act of 1935 authorized the Interstate Commerce Commission to limit the hours of service and to prescribe other measures to safeguard motor-carrier employees and passengers as well as users of highways generally.

Since the passage of the Motor Carrier Act of 1935, the Bureau of Motor Carriers of the Interstate Commerce Commission has promulgated certain safety regulations to be observed by common and contract motor carriers engaged in interstate and foreign commerce. Two of these regulations, which are of particular interest, in view of previous reference in this article to the lack of uniformity in State regulations are as follows: (1) Reporting of accidents, effective April 1, 1937; and (2) qualifications of drivers, effective July 1, 1937. It is now conducting hearings on hours of service of employees of interstate bus and truck operators.

Earnings in New York State Factories, June 1914 to January 1937

WEEKLY earnings of office and shop employees in representative New York State factories averaged $26.68 in January 1937 as compared with $24.82 in January 1936. With the exception of December 1936, for which the average was $26.84, earnings in January 1937 were higher than in any other month since May 1931, when they reached $26.96. The following table, taken from the February 1937 issue of the Industrial Bulletin published by the New York Department of Labor, shows earnings of these workers for each month from June 1914 to January 1937.

Average Weekly Earnings in Representative New York State Factories, 1914–37 [1]

Year	Average for year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1914	------	------	------	------	------	------	$12.70	$12.54	$12.53	$12.48	$12.26	$12.32	$12.56
1915	$12.85	$12.44	$12.41	$12.65	$12.54	$12.74	12.81	12.66	12.89	12.86	13.30	13.45	13.49
1916	14.43	13.53	13.77	13.96	14.15	14.24	14.41	14.11	14.44	14.87	14.95	15.16	15.51
1917	16.37	15.28	15.31	15.79	15.50	16.08	16.20	16.17	16.44	16.97	17.33	17.69	17.71
1918	20.35	16.81	17.66	18.71	19.25	19.91	20.44	20.78	21.23	22.31	22.34	21.60	23.18
1919	23.50	23.03	22.07	22.20	22.11	22.23	22.51	23.10	23.85	24.83	24.41	25.37	26.32
1920	28.15	26.52	26.47	27.87	27.80	28.45	28.77	28.49	28.71	28.73	28.93	28.70	28.35
1921	25.72	27.61	26.77	26.97	26.20	25.86	25.71	25.26	25.43	25.07	24.53	24.32	24.91
1922	25.04	24.43	24.17	24.57	24.15	24.59	24.91	24.77	25.10	25.71	25.61	26.04	26.39
1923	27.24	26.21	25.87	26.92	27.00	27.63	27.87	27.54	27.12	27.41	27.72	27.64	27.98
1924	27.68	27.81	27.73	28.16	27.70	27.56	27.21	27.06	27.40	28.05	27.53	27.66	28.25
1925	28.26	28.30	27.96	28.45	27.67	28.07	27.94	27.98	28.16	28.33	28.57	28.67	29.05
1926	29.02	29.05	28.61	29.04	28.85	28.69	28.99	28.81	28.86	29.31	29.35	29.15	29.47
1927	29.30	29.52	29.39	29.78	29.17	29.18	29.17	28.95	29.29	29.57	29.28	28.75	29.57
1928	29.44	29.21	29.16	29.64	28.79	29.19	29.48	29.15	29.38	29.72	29.78	29.62	30.12
1929	29.99	29.71	29.99	30.35	30.07	30.03	30.02	29.80	30.09	30.47	30.08	29.54	29.75
1930	28.81	29.80	29.46	29.90	29.44	29.10	28.96	28.50	28.59	28.94	28.03	27.42	27.52
1931	26.42	27.01	27.44	27.96	27.35	26.96	26.34	26.39	26.33	26.16	25.34	24.99	24.74
1932	22.73	24.35	24.02	24.14	23.36	22.59	22.20	21.82	21.92	22.50	22.55	21.74	21.62
1933	21.83	20.96	20.95	20.73	21.02	21.49	21.95	22.34	22.48	22.87	22.52	22.25	22.43
1934	23.19	22.79	22.76	23.39	23.34	23.38	23.24	23.12	23.43	23.24	23.02	22.92	23.63
1935	24.36	23.92	24.11	24.62	24.36	24.05	24.04	23.93	24.52	24.83	24.68	24.24	25.02
1936	25.34	24.82	24.80	25.20	24.83	24.88	25.00	25.25	25.79	25.19	25.75	25.68	26.84
1937	------	26.68	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

[1] Includes all employees in both office and shop. The average weekly earnings are obtained by dividing the total weekly pay roll by the total number of employees on the pay roll for the given week. Reports cover the week including the 15th of the month.

Wages in Canada, 1935 and 1936

WAGE rates for various classes of labor in Canada showed on the whole a slightly upward trend in 1936, the general average weighted [1] wage index based on nine important individual groups being 178.6 (1913=100), which was approximately 2 percent higher than that for 1935. The most substantial relative increase was 9 percent in logging and sawmilling. The increases in miscellaneous factory trades and common factory labor were about 2 and 3 percent, respectively. The indexes for coal mining and steam railways remained practically stationary. Various other changes in wage rates from 1935 to 1936 and also from 1929 are indicated in table 1.[2]

Table 1.—Index Numbers of Rates of Wages of Various Classes of Labor in Canada, 1929, 1935, and 1936

[1913=100]

Industry	1936	1935	1929
Building trades [1]	160.8	159.8	197.5
Metal trades [2]	170.1	169.7	184.6
Printing trades [3]	185.2	184.5	202.3
Electric railways [4]	185.5	183.7	198.6
Steam railways [5]	183.9	183.9	204.3
Coal mining [6]	165.9	165.8	168.9
Average, unweighted	175.2	174.6	192.7
Average, weighted	172.9	172.4	195.0
Common factory labor	179.7	174.9	187.8
Miscellaneous factory trades [7]	188.8	184.7	202.1
Logging and sawmilling [7]	165.9	152.3	185.6
General average, weighted	178.6	175.4	196.0

[1] 9 trades, 14 cities, in 1929; after 1930, 31 to 42 cities.
[2] 4 trades.
[3] 6 trades.
[4] 5 classes.
[5] 23 classes.
[6] 12 classes.
[7] The number of samples (and industries) increased from time to time since 1920; machine operators, helpers, etc., also included.

The rates of wages paid and hours worked in specified occupations in three Canadian cities—Ottawa, Toronto, and Vancouver—in 1935 and 1936 are presented in table 2. Among the very few increases reported for the latter year are those for compositors (machine and hand, newspaper), in Toronto, from $46.50 to $47.50 per week, and for pressmen (newspaper), in the same city, from $45.50 to $46.50 per week.

[1] Weighted according to average numbers of workers in each group in 1921 and 1931.
[2] Canada. Department of Labor. Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada, 1929, 1935, and 1936. (Report No. 20.) Ottawa, 1937.

Table 2.—Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Various Occupations in Specified Canadian Cities, 1935 and 1936

Building trades

Occupation	Toronto [1]		Vancouver		Ottawa [1]	
	Wage rates per hour	Hours per week	Wage rates per hour	Hours per week	Wage rates per hour	Hours per week
Bricklayers and masons:						
1935	$0.90	40	$1.10	40	$0.75-$1.00	44
1936	.90	40	1.10	40	.85- 1.00	44
Carpenters:						
1935	.80	40	.60 - .80	40-44	.70	44
1936	.80	40	.60 - .80	40-44	.70	44
Electrical workers:						
1935	1.00	40	.75 - 1.00	40-44	.70	44
1936	1.00	40	.75 - 1.00	40-44	.70	40
Painters:						
1935	.75	40	.62½ - .80	40-44	.60	44
1936	.75	40	.62½ - .80	40-44	.65	44
Plasterers:						
1935	.90	40	1.00	40	.80	44
1936	.90	40	1.00	40	.80	44
Plumbers:						
1935	.90	40	1.00	40-44	.75	40
1936	.90	40	1.00	40-44	.83	40
Sheet-metal workers:						
1935	.75	40	.90	40-44	.75	44
1936	.82½	40	.90	40-44	.75	44
Stonecutters:						
1935	.87½	40	1.00	40	.80	40-44
1936	.87½	40	1.00	40	.80	40-44
Laborers:						
1935	.50- .60	40-48	[3].45 - .50	40-48	.35- .40	44-54
1936	.50- .60	40-48	[3].45 - .50	40-48	.40	44-50

Street railways [2]

Conductors and motormen: [4]						
1935:						
1-man cars	$0.65	44	$0.69	48	$0.54	49½
2-man cars	.60	44	.63	48	----------	-------
1936:						
1-man cars	.65	44	.69	48	.54	49½
2-man cars	.60	44	.63	48	----------	-------
Linemen: [5]						
1935	.72- .78	44	.65½- .92	40-48	.51 - .53	48
1936	.72- .78	44	.68½- .97	-------	.51 - .53	48
Shop and barn men: [6]						
1935	.54- .81	44	.52 - .75	44	.35 - .59	48
1936	.54- .81	44	.52 - .75	44	.35 - .59	48
Electricians: [7]						
1935	.60-.79	44-48	[3].70 .75	44	.35½-.61	48
1936	.60-.79	44-48	.70 -.75	44	.35 -.61	48
Trackmen and laborers:						
1935	.45-.58	48	.50 -.54	44	.38½-.44½	48
1936	.45-.58	48	.50 -.54	44	.38½-.44½	48

[1] In Toronto and Ottawa, in the majority of cases, rates and hours in the building trades were approved under Industrial Standards Act, Ontario, 1935.
[2] Rates of wages approved under Male Minimum Wage Act, British Columbia, 1934.
[3] Where a range appears, figures represent predominant rates.
[4] Maximum rates based on length of service; in most cities bus drivers on lines operated in connection with street railways receive the same maximum rates of wages as one-man car operators.
[5] Including troublemen and groundmen.
[6] Including shedmen, pitmen, cleaners, blacksmiths, carpenters, painters, etc.
[7] Including armature winders, wiremen, etc.
[8] Deductions from earnings, 1935, 2½ percent.

Table 2.—Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Various Occupations in Specified Canadian Cities, 1935 and 1936—Continued

Printing trades

Occupation	Toronto		Vancouver		Ottawa	
	Wage rates per week	Hours per week	Wage rates per week	Hours per week	Wage rates per week	Hours per week
Compositors, machine and hand, newspapers:						
1935	$46.50	46½	$43.20	45	$37.60	46½
1936	47.50	46½	43.20	45	39.60	46½
Compositors, machine and hand, job:						
1935	33.00–40.00	44–48	40.50	44–48	33.00–40.00	44–48
1936	33.00–40.00	44–48	40.50	44–48	32.00–41.00	48
Pressmen, newspapers:						
1935	45.50	48	43.20	48	36.75	48
1936	46.50	48	43.20	48	38.70	48
Pressmen, job:						
1935	33.00–40.00	44–48	40.50	44–48	32.00–40.00	44–48
1936	33.00–40.00	44–48	40.50	44–48	32.00–40.00	48
Bookbinders:						
1935	33.00–40.00	44–48	38.00–45.00	44–48	30.00–36.00	48
1936	33.00–40.00	44–48	35.00–42.30	44–48	30.00–36.00	48
Bindery girls						
1935	12.50–18.00	44–48	14.00–20.25	44–48	13.50	48
1936	12.00–18.00	48–48	14.00–20.25	44–48	10.50–14.50	48

Wages in Seventeen Industries in Germany in December 1936

THE table below shows the average hourly money wages in 17 industries in Germany in December 1936.[1] These wages had remained practically the same since 1933, although real wages and net money wages had undergone considerable changes due, respectively, to changes in cost of living and to various wage deductions.

Average Hourly Wages in Specified Industries in Germany in December 1936

[Average exchange rate of 1 mark (100 pfennigs) in November 1936=40.2 cents]

Industry	Average hourly wages (in pfennigs) of—				
	Males			Females	
	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Skilled	Unskilled
Bituminous-coal mining	95.5		59.9		
Lignite-coal mining	75.2	68.7	66.0		
Metal products	78.0	71.1	61.9		45.1
Chemical	87.1	70.1			46.9
Building trades	81.3		65.3		
Paper production	75.9		57.4		38.6
Paper products	92.9	83.8	69.0	52.7	43.0
Printing	96.1		79.7		48.8
Woodworking	79.3	67.9	61.6		
Pottery	70.9		58.9	43.4	36.1
Clothing	74.0			48.4	
Shoes	79.2	79.8		59.9	
Brewing	105.2		93.2		59.5
Baking and confectionery	80.2		68.5		46.0
State railways	78.7	67.5	64.4		
State postal service	73.4	66.9	62.8		
Textiles	63.6	63.6	53.1	50.0	39.5
Worsted yarn spinning	69.8	69.8	54.4	45.0	39.2
Woolens	61.3	61.3	54.2	51.9	41.3
Cotton	63.3	63.3	52.2	51.8	39.4
Linen	59.6	59.6	49.6	45.6	36.8
Silk	58.2	58.2	54.4	51.3	41.9
Velvet	71.9	71.9	61.6	53.7	40.9
Ribbon weaving	65.3	65.3	54.4	51.1	42.0
Lace and curtain weaving	75.4	75.4	55.9		39.3
Knit goods	64.2	64.2	53.1	44.3	38.4
Average all 17 industries	78.3	68.3	62.3	51.6	43.4

[1] Wirtschaft und Statistik (Berlin), Jan. 1, 1937, pp. 21 and 22.

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

Operations of United States Employment Service, February 1937

A STRIKING upward movement in private-placement activity during the month of February is reported by offices of the United States Employment Service. Despite the short month 158,013 placements in private industry were made, according to preliminary statistics. This volume represents a gain of 138.5 percent above the number reported in February 1936. For the third time in the history of the Employment Service private placements exceeded the combined total of public placements and assignments on relief work made through the employment offices during the month.

The rising total in private placements continues the trend which has been evident since the early part of 1936 and reflects the results obtained through the concerted program carried out to increase private placement opportunities. This private-placement campaign reached Nation-wide extent last fall following the President's Labor Day Nation-wide broadcast. Improved business conditions have enlarged opportunities for employment; the intensive efforts of employment offices in contacting employers have resulted in the striking increases in verified placements.

During the month of February 180,441 employer contacts were made, a new high level in the history of the present Employment Service. This total represents a gain of 223.6 percent above the number of such field visits made in February 1936.

A slight decline was recorded in the number of placements in public nonrelief work made during February. A total of 82,173 such placements was reported, a decline of 2.3 percent from the previous month, but a gain of 0.9 percent over February 1936. Making adjustment for the reduced number of working days in February, the average volume of public placements represented a gain of 4.7 percent over the results obtained in the previous month. The classification "public placements" includes all types of employment with private contractors working on public buildings and construction projects and also includes employment in regular Government agencies.

Assignments of workers on relief projects numbered 10,063 in February. This was a decline of 28.0 percent from the number

reported in January and continued the downward trend which has been in evidence since the end of the period of widespread assignments on W. P. A. projects near the end of 1935. The extent of this decline is evidenced by the fact that the relief assignments made in February 1937 were 95.8 percent lower than the number reported 1 year earlier. The tremendous volume of such assignments during the latter months of 1935 and early 1936 seriously restricted the amount of effort which could be placed upon private-placement activity during that period.

A somewhat reduced pressure from job seekers upon the public employment office facilities was indicated in February. During the month 262,305 new applicants were registered and classified by the offices. This was a drop of 10.3 percent from the number of new applicants registered in January and was 26.2 percent below the number registered in February 1936. A movement in the same direction occurred in the total number of persons actively seeking work through the employment offices at the end of February. Employment Service active files contained the registrations of 6,115,443 job seekers (4,851,207 men and 1,264,236 women) who had given notification within a recent period that they were actually seeking work. This was 2.7 percent less than the number in the files at the end of January and is one-third less than the number reported in February 1936. At that time active files contained an abnormally large number of registrations of relief employables.

The total of 250,249 placements of all types made during February included 185,774 placements of men and 64,475 placements of women. New applications included 176,660 men and 85,645 women.

Placements of war veterans with private employers showed a somewhat larger increase in February than was reported for Employment Service registrants as a whole. The statement below indicates the principal operating activities for war veterans during February:

	Number	*Percent of change from January*
New applications	10,508	−11.6
Total placements	15,423	+1.7
Private	7,599	+13.1
Public	7,212	−8.1
Relief	612	+1.3
Active file	337,845	−2.5

Summary data in table 1 show the principal operating totals for February and the portion of activities reported by each of the two operating branches of the Employment Service, the affiliated State employment services, and the National Reemployment Service. Tables 2 to 5 give State by State data for the month.

Table 1.—Operations of the United States Employment Service, February 1937

Activity	United States combined services		State employment services			National Reemployment Service		
	Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January	Percent of United States total	Number	Percent of change from January	Percent of United States total
New applications	262,305	−10.3	173,588	−8.4	66.2	88,717	−13.1	33.8
Total placements	250,249	+3.3	150,404	+5.2	60.1	99,845	+.7	39.9
Private	158,013	+9.7	99,763	+7.5	63.1	58,250	+12.8	36.9
Public	82,173	−2.3	45,409	+10.0	55.3	36,764	−13.0	44.7
Relief	10,063	−28.0	5,232	+40.8	52.0	4,831	−8.5	48.0
Active file	6,115,443	−2.7	3,228,911	−1.9	52.8	2,886,532	−3.5	47.2

Table 2.—Operations of Offices of Combined State Employment Services and National Reemployment Service, February 1937

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief [1]	Number	Percent of change from January	Feb. 28	Percent of change from Jan. 31
		Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January					
United States	250,249	158,013	+9.7	82,173	−2.3	10,063	262,305	−10.3	6,115,443	−2.7
Alabama	4,107	2,537	+15.8	1,532	−7.3	38	3,132	−35.0	83,137	−6.1
Arizona	1,627	882	−37.4	695	+20.0	50	1,623	−24.5	23,292	−2.9
Arkansas	2,541	917	+32.5	1,481	+39.3	143	2,900	−6.8	68,635	−9.2
California	19,865	11,359	+.2	8,494	+28.1	12	25,402	−13.9	215,551	−2.8
Colorado	1,854	1,066	−28.4	756	−24.2	32	3,447	−1.5	63,209	−4.5
Connecticut	2,654	1,881	−.9	773	−6.0	0	3,301	−22.0	53,350	+.4
Delaware	1,012	660	+3.8	341	−15.4	11	506	−25.0	11,109	+1.1
Florida	7,753	4,784	+42.3	2,879	−19.2	90	4,647	−19.4	60,321	−1.7
Georgia	4,455	2,984	+17.1	1,463	−34.0	8	4,094	−16.5	139,910	−5.0
Idaho	815	520	−18.1	289	+55.4	6	897	−18.5	22,616	+1.3
Illinois	20,649	14,556	+4.9	4,349	+19.1	1,744	22,732	−.3	346,530	+2.5
Indiana	4,778	4,288	+23.7	489	−25.1	1	7,329	−3.1	173,264	−4.4
Iowa	5,023	3,609	−3.4	1,392	−3.6	22	4,290	−2.4	66,503	−2.6
Kansas	2,235	1,179	−7.9	1,052	−26.1	4	2,532	+.5	76,830	−5.3
Kentucky	8,018	6,361	+236.0	1,528	−13.2	129	4,196	+6.3	174,633	−1.2
Louisiana	1,750	1,053	−5.3	611	+8.7	86	4,304	−13.2	91,784	+3.7
Maine	655	189	+10.5	465	−30.0	1	648	−21.2	25,273	−5.5
Maryland	1,982	734	+1.7	729	−22.1	519	2,337	−8.3	61,580	−3.7
Massachusetts	2,423	1,622	+47.2	657	−46.4	144	5,822	−18.7	342,191	−2.2
Michigan	8,853	6,184	+29.1	1,129	−29.3	1,540	10,406	−10.0	151,184	+3.0
Minnesota	5,189	3,971	+.7	1,132	−30.4	86	5,102	−5.7	138,676	−1.3
Mississippi	2,772	264	−27.9	2,491	−24.1	17	2,502	−30.4	96,213	−.2
Missouri	4,667	2,745	−7.5	1,887	−10.9	35	5,952	+5.2	253,793	−2.2
Montana	1,091	717	+29.7	364	+5.8	10	1,056	+50.6	35,735	−2.1
Nebraska	1,366	929	−31.3	424	−68.1	13	3,010	+48.5	53,430	−4.6
Nevada	639	386	−11.7	253	+2.0	0	656	+26.2	5,960	+3.3
New Hampshire	1,006	730	+7.5	271	−20.3	5	836	−1.8	24,887	−5.7
New Jersey	4,141	3,570	−.6	465	−40.4	106	8,276	−8.1	245,214	−.2
New Mexico	1,520	546	−22.2	950	−22.3	24	1,081	−17.6	45,425	+.8
New York	18,622	12,518	−14.9	5,831	−19.2	273	23,345	−5.3	441,482	−6.9
North Carolina	7,373	5,027	+44.7	2,333	+15.8	13	5,423	−22.3	102,999	−2.0
North Dakota	1,262	795	−12.5	430	−23.5	37	767	−41.8	54,602	−10.9
Ohio	15,199	12,248	+20.3	2,696	−1.2	255	13,680	−19.1	344,867	−5.1
Oklahoma	4,062	2,426	−17.2	1,588	−14.7	48	3,061	−5.7	136,751	−5.2
Oregon	9,870	1,895	+67.0	7,960	+446.3	15	2,785	+.7	68,534	+1.4
Pennsylvania	12,874	6,427	−5.2	4,614	−15.3	1,833	17,210	−18.4	846,551	−2.1
Rhode Island	842	687	+17.8	117	−68.1	38	1,249	−13.0	38,932	−2.7
South Carolina	3,873	2,038	+66.1	1,792	−10.1	43	2,602	−3.7	59,328	−2.6
South Dakota	1,282	663	−27.5	611	−29.0	8	1,744	−46.2	51,981	+.2
Tennessee	4,208	1,465	−29.1	1,780	+11.1	963	4,377	−4.2	176,265	−2.5

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Table 2.—Operations of Offices of Combined State Employment Services and National Reemployment Service, February 1937—Continued

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief[1]	Number	Percent of change from January	Feb. 28	Percent of change from Jan. 31
		Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January					
Texas	24,226	16,379	+22.3	7,319	+7.3	528	18,624	+2.0	195,688	−4.3
Utah	880	518	−45.3	359	+6.5	3	677	−4.1	21,183	−1.3
Vermont	394	270	−2.5	120	−54.9	4	459	−17.3	7,848	−24.9
Virginia	4,279	2,660	+8.0	1,455	−11.8	164	3,335	−13.5	72,419	−3.5
Washington	3,241	1,749	+25.0	1,084	−33.0	408	4,442	−4.0	77,570	+4.3
West Virginia	3,382	2,759	+80.6	616	−28.0	7	2,862	−8.8	105,407	−1.1
Wisconsin	6,063	4,140	+8.8	1,632	−26.6	291	9,300	−22.3	129,740	−3.0
Wyoming	920	342	+17.1	328	−10.4	250	581	+3.4	8,729	−.6
District of Columbia	1,957	1,784	−16.2	167	−69.7	6	2,766	+5.9	24,332	−19.0

Table 3.—Operations of Offices of State Employment Services, February 1937

State	Placements						New applications		Active life	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief[1]	Total	Percent of change from January	Feb. 28	Percent of change from Jan. 31
		Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January					
All States	150,404	99,763	[2]+7.5	45,409	[2]+10.0	5,232	173,588	[2]−8.4	[3]2,228,911	[2]−1.9
Alabama	1,641	1,018	−2.5	615	+2.7	8	1,270	−31.6	29,701	−7.1
Arizona	638	445	−55.3	144	−12.7	49	800	−44.4	11,400	−5.1
California	15,240	9,070	+5.8	6,170	+49.3	0	21,221	−14.7	169,104	−3.9
Colorado	928	632	−17.3	284	−16.7	12	2,033	+3.5	32,034	−5.6
Connecticut	1,968	1,365	−.1	603	+18.0	0	2,606	−22.0	39,174	−.7
Delaware	1,012	660	+3.8	341	−15.4	11	506	−25.0	11,109	+1.1
Florida	7,753	4,784	+42.3	2,879	−19.2	90	4,647	−19.4	60,321	−1.7
Idaho	605	449	−5.5	154	+21.3	2	703	−4.6	13,531	+.1
Illinois	17,742	12,205	+3.2	3,808	+43.3	1,729	19,528	−1.1	246,568	+4.7
Indiana	4,778	4,288	+23.7	489	−25.1	1	7,329	−3.1	173,264	−4.4
Iowa	5,023	3,609	−3.4	1,392	−3.6	22	4,290	−2.4	66,503	−2.6
Kansas (not affiliated)	746	616	−16.8	130	−65.5	0	718	−.4	22,538	−2.5
Louisiana	1,750	1,053	−5.3	611	+8.7	86	4,304	−13.2	91,784	+3.7
Massachusetts	2,013	1,468	[3]	413	[3]	132	4,299	[3]	194,124	[3]
Minnesota	2,788	2,343	+6.9	389	−49.4	56	3,239	−7.4	75,639	+.9
Missouri	2,270	1,580	−14.2	662	+3.9	28	4,095	+9.8	88,390	−.8
Nebraska	661	477	−45.5	177	−76.5	7	2,145	+50.2	36,053	+1.9
Nevada	496	352	−3.8	144	−24.6	0	564	+23.4	4,419	+3.5
New Hampshire	424	268	−13.0	151	−24.5	5	477	+20.5	13,728	−6.1
New Jersey	4,141	3,570	−.6	465	−40.4	106	8,276	−8.1	245,214	−.2
New Mexico	803	261	−27.3	518	−21.3	24	676	−5.7	24,743	+1.9
New York	14,950	10,853	−16.8	3,889	−11.7	208	19,952	−4.5	238,517	−1.0
North Carolina	7,373	5,027	+44.7	2,333	+15.8	13	5,423	−22.3	102,999	−2.0
North Dakota	262	217	−28.6	45	+1,400.0	0	195	−4.9	10,032	−.8
Ohio	10,141	8,300	+7.6	1,614	−12.4	227	10,371	−19.8	233,508	−8.9
Oklahoma	2,451	1,771	−27.0	665	−14.6	15	1,225	−1.1	22,412	−7.9
Oregon	9,031	1,452	+150.8	7,570	+590.7	9	1,600	−10.9	48,700	+2.8
Pennsylvania	7,363	3,772	−4.0	2,555	−12.5	1,036	11,890	−19.7	483,228	−1.5
Rhode Island	728	600	+12.6	90	−72.0	38	1,166	−13.5	35,316	−2.8
South Dakota	1,168	594	−22.5	566	−24.8	8	1,691	−46.8	47,630	+1.2
Tennessee	2,941	1,101	−30.4	1,075	−11.5	765	2,757	+1.4	73,299	−3.1
Texas	9,297	7,440	+459.0	1,823	−10.7	34	8,790	+146.9	71,855	+1.7
Vermont	394	270	−2.5	120	−54.9	4	459	−17.3	7,848	−24.9
Virginia	1,747	1,083	−12.1	557	+2.8	107	1,313	−16.0	22,086	−2.9
West Virginia	778	699	+20.3	79	−67.2	0	664	−16.9	24,261	−2.1
Wisconsin	6,063	4,140	+8.8	1,632	−26.6	291	9,300	−22.3	129,740	−3.0
Wyoming	340	147	+22.5	90	−46.1	103	300	+.3	3,807	−8.3
District of Columbia	1,957	1,784	−16.2	167	−69.7	6	2,766	+5.9	24,332	−19.0

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Computed from comparable reports only.
[3] Not comparable due to transfer of 5 offices from N. R. S. to S. E. S.

Table 4.—Operations of Offices of National Reemployment Service, February 1937

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
		Private		Public						
	Total	Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January	Relief[1]	Total	Percent of change from January	Feb. 28	Percent of change from Jan. 31
All States	99,845	58,250	[2]+12.8	36,764	[2]−13.0	4,831	88,717	[2]−13.1	2,886,532	[2]−3.5
Alabama	2,466	1,519	+32.5	917	−13.0	30	1,862	−37.1	53,436	−5.6
Arizona	989	437	+5.3	551	+33.1	1	823	+15.9	11,892	−.8
Arkansas	2,541	917	+32.5	1,481	+39.3	143	2,900	−6.8	68,635	−9.2
California	4,625	2,289	−17.2	2,324	−7.0	12	4,181	−9.3	46,447	+1.2
Colorado	926	434	−40.1	472	−28.2	20	1,414	−7.9	31,175	−3.3
Connecticut	686	516	−3.2	170	−45.3	0	695	−21.6	14,176	+3.5
Georgia	4,455	2,984	+17.1	1,463	−34.0	8	4,094	−16.5	139,910	−5.0
Idaho	210	71	−55.6	135	+128.8	4	194	−46.7	9,085	+3.2
Illinois	2,907	2,351	+15.1	541	−45.6	15	3,204	+4.9	99,962	−2.4
Kansas	1,489	563	+4.3	922	−11.9	4	1,814	+.8	54,292	−6.4
Kentucky	8,018	6,361	+236.0	1,528	−13.2	129	4,196	+6.3	174,633	−1.2
Maine	655	189	+10.5	465	−30.0	1	648	−21.2	25,273	−5.5
Maryland	1,982	734	+1.7	729	−22.1	519	2,337	−8.3	61,580	−3.7
Massachusetts	410	154	[3]	244	[3]	12	1,523	[3]	148,067	[3]
Michigan	8,853	6,184	+29.1	1,129	−29.3	1,540	10,406	−10.0	151,184	+3.0
Minnesota	2,401	1,628	−7.1	743	−13.3	30	1,863	−2.6	63,037	−3.8
Mississippi	2,772	264	−27.9	2,491	−24.1	17	2,502	−30.3	96,213	−.2
Missouri	2,397	1,165	+3.5	1,225	−17.3	7	1,857	−3.8	165,403	−2.9
Montana	1,091	717	+29.7	364	+5.8	10	1,056	+50.6	35,735	−2.1
Nebraska	705	452	−5.0	247	−57.0	6	865	+44.4	17,377	−15.8
Nevada	143	34	−52.1	109	+91.2	0	92	+46.0	1,541	+2.9
New Hampshire	582	462	+24.5	120	−14.3	0	359	−21.1	11,159	−5.2
New Mexico	717	285	−16.9	432	−23.5	0	405	−31.9	20,682	−.4
New York	3,672	1,665	+.8	1,942	−30.8	65	3,393	−9.5	202,965	−12.9
North Dakota	1,000	578	−4.5	385	−31.1	37	572	−48.7	44,570	−12.9
Ohio	5,058	3,948	+60.0	1,082	+22.1	28	3,309	−16.7	111,359	+3.8
Oklahoma	1,611	655	+30.2	923	−14.8	33	1,836	−8.6	114,339	−4.7
Oregon	839	443	−20.3	390	+8.0	6	1,185	+22.3	19,834	−2.0
Pennsylvania	5,511	2,655	−6.9	2,059	−18.6	797	5,320	−15.4	363,323	−2.8
Rhode Island	114	87	+74.0	27	−41.3	0	83	−4.6	3,616	−1.4
South Carolina	3,873	2,038	+66.1	1,792	−10.1	43	2,602	−3.7	59,328	−2.6
South Dakota	114	69	−53.4	45	−57.9	0	53	−11.7	4,351	−10.0
Tennessee	1,267	364	−24.8	705	+82.2	198	1,620	−12.6	102,966	−2.0
Texas	14,929	8,939	−25.9	5,496	+15.1	494	9,834	−33.1	123,833	−7.4
Utah	880	518	−45.3	359	+6.5	3	677	−4.1	21,183	−1.3
Virginia	2,532	1,577	+28.1	898	−19.0	57	2,022	−11.7	50,333	−3.8
Washington	3,241	1,749	+25.0	1,084	−33.0	408	4,442	−4.0	77,570	+4.3
West Virginia	2,604	2,060	+117.5	537	−12.7	7	2,198	−6.1	81,146	−.8
Wyoming	580	195	+13.4	238	+19.6	147	281	+6.8	4,922	+6.3

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Computed from comparable reports only.
[3] Not comparable due to transfer of 5 officers from N. R. S. to S. E. S.

Table 5.—Veterans' Activities of Offices of Combined State Employment Services and National Reemployment Service, February 1937

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief[1]	Total	Percent of change from January	Feb. 28	Percent of change from Jan. 31
		Number	Percent of change from January	Number	Percent of change from January					
United States	15,423	7,599	+13.1	7,212	−8.1	612	10,508	−11.6	337,845	−2.5
Alabama	253	142	−9.6	108	−25.5	3	105	−19.2	3,728	−6.4
Arizona	118	48	−42.2	63	+3.3	7	96	−26.7	1,205	+3.3
Arkansas	181	49	+32.4	125	+73.6	7	133	−14.7	2,994	−8.4
California	1,808	726	+2.1	1,081	+28.1	1	1,630	−14.0	15,758	−5.0
Colorado	145	56	−16.4	88	−35.3	1	134	−11.3	3,394	−4.0
Connecticut	185	63	−16.0	122	+40.2	0	132	−23.7	3,636	+.2
Delaware	60	37	−17.8	23	−14.8	0	12	−20.0	585	+2.1
Florida	409	181	+46.0	224	+3.2	4	231	−28.0	3,932	+13.4
Georgia	202	138	+46.8	64	−39.0	0	97	−32.6	4,985	−5.4
Idaho	74	33	−29.8	40	+42.9	1	56	+9.8	1,285	+2.7
Illinois	1,087	651	−1.7	383	−8.4	53	797	−19.2	21,125	+2.6
Indiana	238	181	+11.7	57	−12.3	0	285	−8.7	9,744	−6.0
Iowa	531	315	−4.5	207	−11.2	9	240	+23.1	4,655	−2.6
Kansas	197	98	−19.0	95	−26.9	4	127	+15.4	4,654	−3.4
Kentucky	677	489	+361.3	175	−16.7	13	158	+17.0	7,925	−1.7
Louisiana	134	54	−14.3	72	+94.6	8	182	−3.7	5,090	+4.2
Maine	58	8	−27.3	50	−36.7	0	35	−30.0	1,958	−5.0
Maryland	118	37	−21.3	63	−25.9	18	90	−7.2	4,000	−6.3
Massachusetts	170	71	+54.3	80	−40.3	19	334	−12.1	21,531	−1.8
Michigan	527	338	+23.4	89	−29.9	100	503	−13.4	8,888	+1.3
Minnesota	299	172	+17.8	125	−26.9	2	179	−9.1	10,719	−.7
Mississippi	90	8	−57.9	82	+6.5	0	64	−31.9	3,099	−.2
Missouri	336	114	−39.7	220	+12.8	2	299	+3.1	16,119	−2.1
Montana	116	54	+3.8	61	+64.9	1	54	+86.2	1,744	−2.4
Nebraska	88	46	−49.5	42	−60.0	0	103	+77.6	3,215	−3.3
Nevada	72	34	+9.7	38	+18.7	0	34	.0	392	−5.1
New Hampshire	72	43	+38.7	29	−23.7	0	37	+23.3	1,542	−5.6
New Jersey	186	112	−5.9	47	−30.9	27	290	−9.4	12,959	−.4
New Mexico	150	42	+10.5	100	−21.3	8	53	−7.0	2,588	+1.5
New York	766	332	−5.4	423	−37.0	11	467	−10.2	25,117	−5.8
North Carolina	345	188	+16.0	156	+26.8	1	157	−25.9	3,676	+.5
North Dakota	65	30	−25.0	32	−17.9	3	31	−20.5	2,349	−13.1
Ohio	1,001	725	+45.9	269	−14.9	7	483	−13.0	19,687	−5.3
Oklahoma	344	182	+.6	158	−19.8	4	129	−23.2	6,813	−6.5
Oregon	322	200	+124.7	122	−37.8	0	204	−9.3	5,951	+1.1
Pennsylvania	809	250	−1.6	437	−18.0	122	558	−15.3	41,775	−.7
Rhode Island	25	19	+11.8	6	−80.6	0	51	−7.3	2,143	−1.1
South Carolina	203	119	+85.9	82	−26.1	2	74	−19.6	2,299	−3.3
South Dakota	107	50	−41.2	57	−17.4	0	87	−26.9	2,937	+1.5
Tennessee	218	37	−2.6	158	+20.6	23	209	+4.0	6,656	−2.2
Texas	1,186	432	+30.1	718	+22.3	36	563	−8.2	8,617	−7.4
Utah	92	44	−38.0	48	.0	0	31	+34.8	1,383	+2.2
Vermont	15	8	+14.3	7	−58.8	0	18	+28.6	318	−27.4
Virginia	264	107	+.9	118	−2.5	39	124	−27.5	2,838	−3.7
Washington	281	124	−15.6	135	+9.8	22	197	+7.1	5,537	+5.4
West Virginia	190	142	+129.0	48	−36.0	0	98	−1.0	5,204	−1.2
Wisconsin	424	173	+16.1	210	−4.1	41	323	−26.6	8,558	−6.6
Wyoming	71	16	+166.7	44	+15.8	11	36	+56.5	611	+1.0
District of Columbia	114	81	−4.7	31	−72.1	2	178	+10.6	1,927	−18.4

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Progress of Private Placement Program of United States Employment Service

THE placement of workers with private employers has always been a major objective of the United States Employment Service. During periods of large-scale emergency activity the work of the public employment offices in the private-placement field has at times been temporarily obscured in public attention by the somewhat more spectacular emergency operations. At no time, however, has work ceased toward the achievement of the underlying objective of enlarged service to workers and employers in private industry.

During the past year the offices of the United States Employment Service have been engaged in a concerted program to enlarge placements with private employers. The activity has been particularly noteworthy during recent months following the President's Nation-wide broadcast last September, in which this work was emphasized.

In the earlier periods of the existence of the present Employment Service, which dates from July 1, 1933, operations were influenced to a large degree by the necessity of meeting problems arising in connection with the emergency works program. Thus, during this period a large portion of registrations and placements were in connection with the C. W. A. and P. W. A. programs and, later, the relief-work projects of the W. P. A. This work has now been succeeded in size as well as in fundamental importance by the long-term private-placement work.

During the 44 months of its operations, the present United States Employment Service has made some 18¾ million placements and has registered for employment some 25⅔ million applicants. More than 11 million placements have been in nonrelief work. About 4¾ million have been in private employment and 6⅓ million in public nonrelief employment. In addition, 7¾ million placements on relief-works projects or C. W. A. projects were made, most of these prior to 1936. Since the beginning of the present fiscal year, private placements have been almost 5 times as great as the number of relief placements, and in recent months have completely outshadowed relief placements.

A brief account of the private-placement activity of the Employment Service through July 1936, was included in the October issue of the Monthly Labor Review. The present article summarizes very briefly the results obtained since that time.

The revival of private-placement activity following the W. P. A. program dates from January 1936. The increases in private placements during subsequent months have been notable and in every month since February 1936, private placements have exceeded those made 1 year earlier, but have been most marked during the months since July 1936.

As is shown in table 1, the gains in the number of jobs filled with private employers this year above the numbers reported the previous

year were widened strikingly during the late fall and winter months. Results of the improvement are also evident in the enlarged private placement during the second 6 months of the year above those reported during the first half-year.

Table 1.—Private Placements and Field Visits by U. S. Employment Service January 1935 to February 1937

Month	Private placements			Field visits		
	1935	1936	Percent of change	1935	1936	Percent of change
January	75,857	61,883	−18.4	83,817	56,370	−32.7
February	66,334	66,263	−.1	71,527	55,765	−22.0
March	85,417	93,122	+9.0	83,329	75,105	−9.9
April	101,467	110,912	+9.3	88,581	85,725	−3.2
May	112,169	133,802	+19.3	86,265	88,711	+2.8
June	95,766	123,517	+29.0	72,975	85,229	+16.8
First 6 months	537,010	589,499	+9.8	486,494	446,905	−8.1
July	105,477	117,828	+11.7	75,874	79,158	+4.3
August	105,101	131,022	+24.7	84,022	86,205	+2.6
September	114,327	167,672	+46.7	73,290	102,080	+39.3
October	117,091	173,453	+48.1	78,278	105,934	+35.3
November	68,292	158,948	+132.7	56,887	129,014	+126.8
December	60,457	172,344	+185.1	60,336	156,414	+159.2
Second 6 months	570,745	921,267	+61.4	428,687	658,805	+53.7
Total for year	1,107,755	1,510,766	+36.4	915,181	1,105,710	+20.8
	1936	*1937*		*1936*	*1937*	
January	61,883	144,075	+132.8	56,370	149,052	+164.4
February	66,263	158,013	+138.5	55,765	180,441	+223.6
Total for 14 months	1,235,901	1,812,854	+46.7	1,027,316	1,435,203	+39.7

During the 6 months January through June 1936, private placements made by the Employment Service numbered 589,499, a gain of 9.8 percent above the number reported for the first 6 months of 1935. As is shown in table 1, during the second half of the year the steady upward trend was materially improved by a series of progressive gains. The 921,267 private placements in this 6-month period were 56.3 percent greater than the number in the first half of the year and were 61.4 percent larger than the number reported in the second 6 months of 1935.

With but one exception the gains in private placement each month following February 1936 showed a widening margin over the private placements of the previous year. In July, this margin showed an 11.7 percent increase in jobs filled with private employers over the number in July 1935. By October, the gains over the same month 1 year earlier had risen 48.1 percent, with the number of private placements standing at 173,453, the highest number since the Employment Service has been operating under its present field organization. Despite seasonal influences, the enlarged volume was maintained during November and December, and the gains over the preceding year became exceedingly large. December private placements were 185.1

percent above December 1935. The gains during this entire period were a concrete reflection of definite progress in serving industry. During November and December 1935 the percentage gains were also increased in some degree by the fact that private placements in those months were abnormally low because of the extreme pressure of W. P. A. activities. That the gains represent actual material improvement, however, is evidenced in the fact that the private-placement volume in each month since the close of August is markedly higher than for any previous month in recent years.

The gains reported during the closing months of 1936 have continued into the present year. In January, 144,075 placements in private industry [1] were reported. This volume is 132.8 percent larger than the January 1936 results. Preliminary reports for February indicate an even greater improvement. In this month 158,013 private placements were reported, a number 9.7 percent above January and 138.5 percent above the record for February 1936.

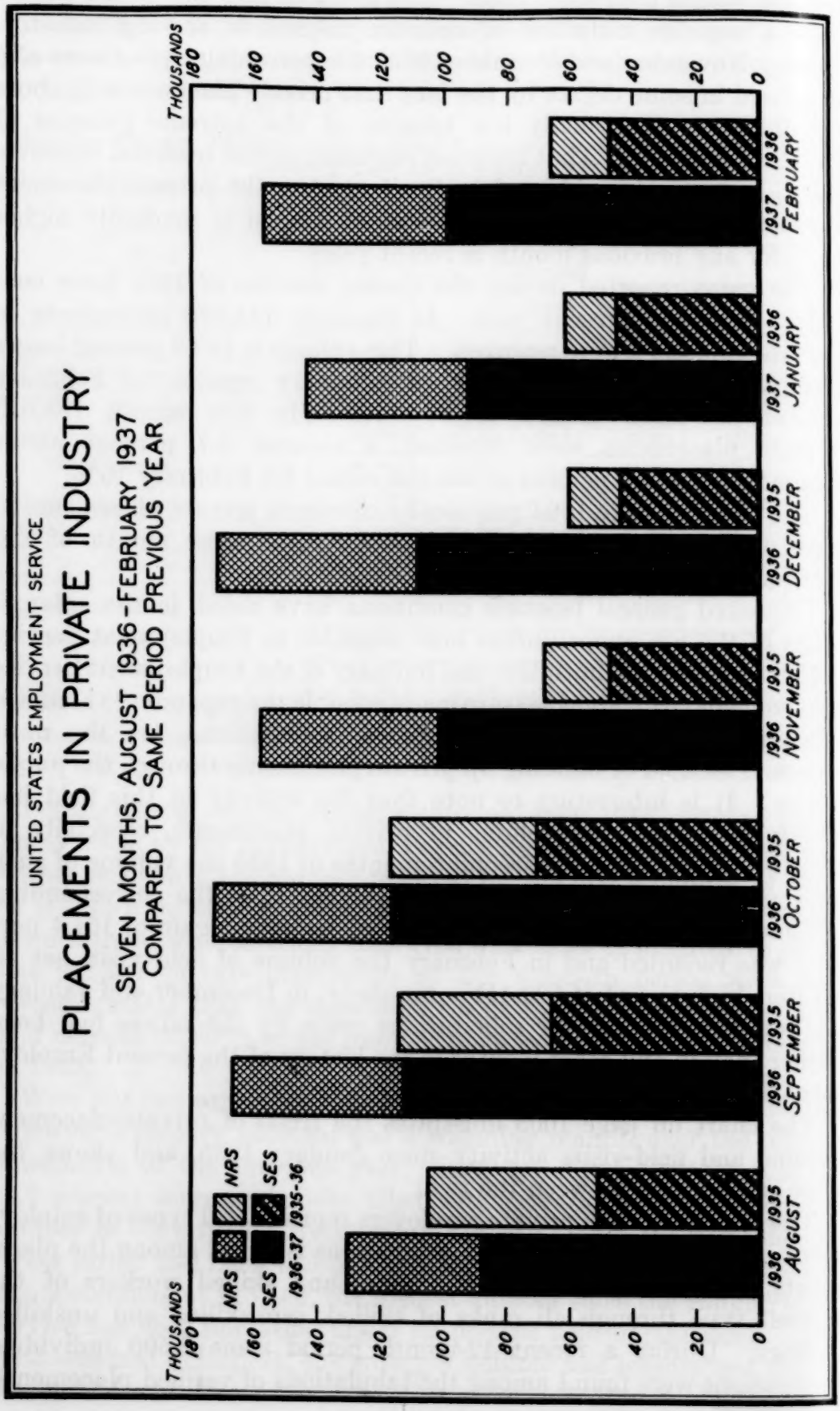
The chart on page 1004 graphically compares private placements in each of the past 7 months with those for the same month of the previous year.

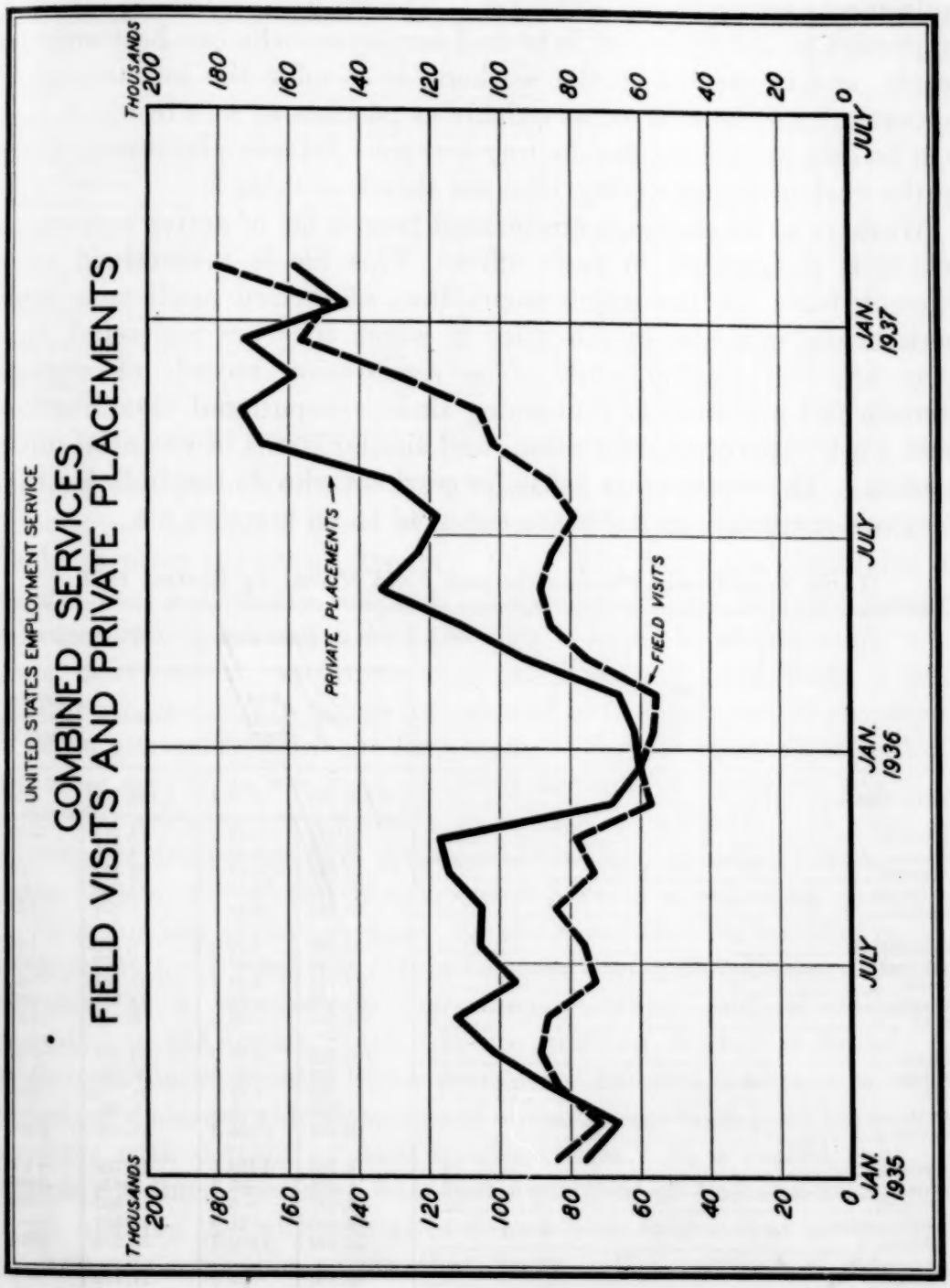
Improved general business conditions have aided in the enlargement of the job opportunities now available to Employment Service registrants, but the initiative and industry of the Employment Service personnel have in large measure made possible the expanding volume of placements. Field visits, or employer solicitations, are the most common method of building up private placements through the public offices. It is interesting to note that the activity in this field has closely paralleled the volume of private placements, especially in recent months. For the second 6 months of 1936 the volume of such field visits, 658,805, was 53 percent higher than the corresponding volume 1 year earlier. In the month of January a gain of 164.4 percent was recorded and in February the volume of field visits set an all-time high record of 180,441. Similarly, in December and January the number of employer solicitations made by the offices had been higher than in any other months in the history of the present Employment Service.

The chart on page 1005 illustrates the trend of private-placement volume and field-visits activity since January 1935, and shows the close relationship between the two.

The jobs filled with private employers represent all types of employment. A tremendous range of occupations is found among the placements, ranging from technical experts and skilled workers of the highest type through all ranks of skilled, semiskilled and unskilled callings. During a recent 12-month period some 2,500 individual occupations were found among the tabulations of verified placements.

[1] Tentative figures based upon preliminary field reports.


UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
PLACEMENTS IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY
SEVEN MONTHS, AUGUST 1936-FEBRUARY 1937
COMPARED TO SAME PERIOD PREVIOUS YEAR
THOUSANDS
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
NRS
SES
1936-37
1935-36
1936 1935 AUGUST
1936 1935 SEPTEMBER
1936 1935 OCTOBER
1936 1935 NOVEMBER
1936 1935 DECEMBER
1937 1936 JANUARY
1937 1936 FEBRUARY


UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
COMBINED SERVICES
FIELD VISITS AND PRIVATE PLACEMENTS
THOUSANDS
200
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
PRIVATE PLACEMENTS
FIELD VISITS
JAN. 1935
JULY
JAN. 1936
JULY
JAN. 1937
JULY

The Employment Service operates as an independent agency serving both employer and worker without cost. Its function is to place the right man in the right job. Selection is made on the basis of the qualifications specified in the employer's orders. The employment offices have no control over the conditions of work or the requirements set up by the employer. The employment-office function, in respect to the employer, is to find employees who can best meet his needs, and in respect to the workers, is to offer the job seekers an opportunity to be referred as quickly as possible to jobs in which they will be able to perform satisfactory service. Private placements made in the various States during 1936 are shown in table 2.

Workers to fill openings are secured from a file of active registrants which is maintained in each office. This file is maintained on a current basis by the requirement that all active applicants must periodically indicate, to the office in which they are registered, that they are still seeking work. The registration records of workers contain full information concerning their occupational classification, past work experience, education, and similar items of essential information. The registration cards for workers who do not indicate that they are currently available are removed to an inactive file.

Table 2.—Private Placements and Field Visits, by States, 1936

State	Private placements		Field visits	
	Number	Percent of change from 1935	Number	Percent of change from 1935
United States	1,510,766	+36.4	1,105,710	+20.8
Alabama	5,837	−12.2	12,215	+29.0
Arizona	12,703	+89.6	9,798	+70.3
Arkansas	10,910	−55.6	18,457	−29.2
California	175,930	+55.1	82,386	+4.6
Colorado	19,345	+44.8	7,804	+37.8
Connecticut	22,090	+24.3	7,596	+26.7
Delaware	8,354	+149.6	3,755	+355.7
Florida	22,741	+40.4	29,535	+65.6
Georgia	24,168	−21.1	32,213	−33.0
Idaho	6,805	−33.2	6,988	+37.9
Illinois	150,632	+59.2	96,967	+62.5
Indiana	54,984	+23.8	26,112	+75.2
Iowa	37,102	+55.5	41,711	+43.2
Kansas	13,295	−23.2	18,908	−9.4
Kentucky	16,829	+164.5	13,229	+136.6
Louisiana	9,543	+129.1	10,704	+155.7
Maine	1,358	+6.9	2,451	+480.8
Maryland	6,637	−6.5	6,807	−30.8
Massachusetts	12,620	−21.5	16,651	−6.3
Michigan	36,600	+210.0	52,972	+396.2
Minnesota	49,386	−23.8	27,792	−53.0
Mississippi	1,758	−72.6	4,792	−53.2
Missouri	23,073	+23.5	33,303	+63.1
Montana	10,960	+2.9	8,277	−28.1
Nebraska	10,311	−21.3	21,289	+10.7
Nevada	1,772	−12.1	3,314	+42.0
New Hampshire	7,357	−12.1	5,459	+20.4
New Jersey	45,432	+62.9	27,503	+48.2
New Mexico	15,015	+131.9	8,602	+13.0
New York	177,920	+53.0	38,724	−20.8

Table 2.—Private Placements and Field Visits, by States, 1936—Continued

State	Private placements		Field visits	
	Number	Percent of change from 1935	Number	Percent of change from 1935
North Carolina	40,289	+58.4	21,929	−13.3
North Dakota	10,974	+32.6	7,965	+104.5
Ohio	123,776	+44.9	68,854	+47.5
Oklahoma	23,086	+33.8	18,816	+63.7
Oregon	12,755	−32.9	10,296	+25.9
Pennsylvania	59,163	+27.7	56,200	−7.2
Rhode Island	3,964	+77.0	8,512	+87.9
South Carolina	9,795	−46.9	30,193	−36.2
South Dakota	8,157	+6.6	8,855	−7.8
Tennessee	11,392	+135.0	7,777	+4.8
Texas	76,361	+288.0	111,587	+131.8
Utah	12,180	+75.1	8,774	+42.7
Vermont	3,823	+62.2	3,777	+11.2
Virginia	22,385	+44.9	18,049	+12.4
Washington	9,567	−12.2	11,926	+91.5
West Virginia	13,575	+69.6	13,271	+27.1
Wisconsin	50,046	+14.2	17,810	+6.1
Wyoming	5,061	+58.1	3,531	+70.2
District of Columbia	22,950	+25.8	1,184	−33.2

Upon receipt of an order for a specified type of worker, a trained interviewer surveys a panel of prospective candidates who would be likely to meet the requirements. From this list those considered to be the best suited are selected. Those chosen by this preliminary selection are called in for a reinterview in order to obtain more complete information concerning their abilities and from them a final selection is made of workers for referral to the prospective employer.

In its placement work the Employment Service offers a particularly valuable service in securing qualified workers in instances where no qualified workers are available in a local community. A comprehensive clearance system is available which, in effect, makes the entire active file of the Employment Service a potential source of workers for any given opening. In the event that an opening cannot be filled within a local office, it is "cleared" with Employment Service districts at a successively increasing distance, and, if necessary, throughout the entire State. If no qualified worker is found, the opening is placed in inter-State clearance. In some instances recently, practically nation-wide clearance of openings has been used in securing workers with certain unusual qualifications. As a recent example, a highly trained specialist who had registered in Indiana was placed in an opening in California after it had been found that no qualified worker was available within that State. The number of clearance openings has reached extensive proportions, over 220,000 being reported in 1936.

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Summary of Reports for February 1937

APPROXIMATELY 225,000 workers were returned to employment in February in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. At the same time weekly wage disbursements were increased by more than $12,700,000.

A comparison with February 1936 shows that these industries had nearly 1,560,000 more workers on their pay rolls in February of the current year and that the weekly wage bill was nearly $62,600,000 larger.

Class I steam railroads also employed more workers in February than in January, according to a preliminary report by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The gain amounted to 20,698 employees exclusive of executives and officials.

Public-employment reports in February showed a decrease on construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration. This decrease was accounted for by the completion of some of the projects financed from funds provided by the National Industrial Recovery Act and the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. The program of public works financed from the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936, on the other hand, is not as yet in full operation. Seasonal decreases in employment were evident in the decrease in the number of workers employed on construction projects financed by regular governmental appropriations and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Projects under the jurisdiction of The Works Program also registered decreases in the number of workers employed. The greater part of this decrease occurred on Federal construction projects under The Works Program and was a result of the usual seasonal decline in construction activity. A moderate decrease occurred in employment on the emergency conservation program. This downward movement in employment was caused by the end of an enlistment period.

Industrial and Business Employment

WIDESPREAD gains in factory employment and pay rolls resulted in a net employment increase of 2.5 percent for all manufacturing indus-

tries combined and a net pay-roll gain of 5.6 percent. In quantitative terms, these increases indicate that 200,000 factory workers were returned to jobs in February and that more than $10,200,000 were added to weekly wage disbursements of manufacturing establishments.

These gains brought the factory employment index to 98.9 in February, the highest level since December 1929, and the pay-roll index to 95.7, the highest point since April 1930. The 3-year average 1923–25 is taken as the base or 100 for these indexes.

Factory employment has shown increases from January to February in 15 of the preceding 18 years for which data are available, and pay rolls have risen in 14 of these 18 years. The employment gain this year, however, is larger than those reported for all but 2 of the preceding years and the increase in pay rolls is larger than those shown for all but 5 years. The resumption of operations in a number of establishments that had been affected by strikes in January, added to usual seasonal movements and generally improved conditions, accounted for the favorable employment picture in February of this year. Numerous wage-rate increases contributed to the gain in factory pay rolls in February. According to reports received by the Bureau, nearly 250,000 factory wage earners out of approximately 4,700,000 covered by the survey received increases in February.

The gain in factory employment between January and February was shared by 76 of the 89 industries surveyed and the increase in pay rolls was also shared by 76 industries. Resumption of operations following shut-downs due to strikes was primarily responsible for the increases of 32.0 percent in employment in the lighting equipment industry, 22.3 percent in hardware, and 16.0 percent in glass. The gain of 22.1 percent in cane-sugar refining was due primarily to the settlement of the maritime strike, which made it possible for refineries to secure the necessary raw materials. The automobile industry showed a gain of 1.7 percent in employment and an increase of 12.6 percent in pay rolls between January and February. Substantial seasonal gains in employment were shown in the stove industry (11.8 percent), millinery (11.2 percent), men's furnishings (9.8 percent), fertilizers (9.9 percent), cigars and cigarettes (6.3 percent), agricultural implements (6.9 percent), women's clothing (6.9 percent), shirts and collars (6.2 percent), men's clothing (4.2 percent), and boots and shows (2.9 percent).

Other industries in which increased activity resulted in large employment gains were steam- and electric-railroad car building (12.3 percent), locomotives (12.3 percent), soap (9.4 percent), engines-turbines-tractors (7.7 percent), electrical machinery (5.1 percent), shipbuilding (4.4 percent), and aircraft (4.2 percent). Many industries producing building-construction materials showed gains. Among them were steam and hot-water heating apparatus (4.8 percent), structural

metalwork (1.4 percent), millwork (2.2 percent), paints and varnishes (2.4 percent), brick-tile-terra cotta (2.1 percent), and sawmills (1.7 percent). Other industries of major importance which showed employment gains in February were blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills (1.8 percent), foundries and machine shops (3.0 percent), paper and pulp (2.1 percent), knit goods (1.9 percent), cotton goods (1.6 percent), baking (1.2 percent), and book and job printing (1.3 percent).

Among the 13 manufacturing industries which reported decreased employment between January and February, the declines in the following industries were due primarily to seasonal slackening of activities: Cottonseed oil-cake-meal (9.9 percent), radios and phonographs (8.8 percent), slaughtering and meat packing (5.3 percent), and beet sugar (2.0 percent). The decrease of 5.2 percent in the rubber boot and shoe industry was due in large part to a strike.

The net employment gain between January and February for the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed amounted to 25,000 workers and the corresponding pay-roll increase was $2,500,000. These increases were shared by 10 of the industries covered. The largest employment gain was in wholesale trade establishments, which added 20,900 workers to their pay rolls, an increase of 1.4 percent. This expansion was in such important lines as dry goods and apparel, groceries, other food products, chemicals and drugs, and machinery. A seasonal increase of approximately 2,600 workers (1.1 percent) was reported by year-round hotels. In metal mining employment increased 4.2 percent, representing a gain of 3,100 workers. This advance continued the almost unbroken succession of increases that has been registered by this industry each month since July 1935 and brought the employment index to the highest level since December 1930. The pay-roll gain for the metal-mining industry (8.5 percent) exceeded the employment gain largely because of wage-rate increases. According to reports received by the Bureau covering approximately 45,000 workers, nearly 16,000 were affected by the wage increases.

Employment in retail-trade establishments fell only 0.3 percent, the decline amounting to approximately 5,700 workers. This was due primarily to the seasonal decrease of 1.2 percent in the general merchandising group (department, variety, and general merchandising stores and mail-order houses). In "other retail" establishments the decline from January to February was only 0.1 percent. Among the lines of retail trade showing gains in employment were food, lumber and building materials, coal-wood-ice, and farmers supplies. Among the lines showing decreases were wearing apparel, furniture, automotive, and hardware.

Reports from contractors engaged in private building construction showed a decrease in employment (0.9 percent) from January to February, but this decline was much less pronounced than the decreases reported in February of the 5 preceding years for which data are available. Moreover, the level of employment in the construction industry in February was 55.1 percent higher than in the corresponding month of last year.

Class I railroads also reported an increase in employment in February. According to a preliminary report by the Interstate Commerce Commission, class I railroads employed 1,083,709 workers (exclusive of executives and officials) in February, a gain of 1.9 percent over the number reported for January (1,063,011). Corresponding pay-roll information for February was not available at the time this report was prepared. January wage disbursements of the railroads, however, amounted to $153,438,897, a decrease of 1.8 percent over December when the total was $156,221,415. The Commission's preliminary employment indexes, based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100 and covering all employees, were 61.4 for February and 60.2 for January. The final December index was 60.6.

Hours and earnings.—Average hours worked per week by factory wage earners in February were 40.4 compared with 39.6 in January, a gain of 2.1 percent. Average hourly earnings advanced 0.9 percent to 60.2 cents and average weekly earnings rose 3.1 percent to $24.74.

Of the 14 manufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, 11 showed gains in average hours worked per week and 8 showed increases in average hourly earnings. Twelve of the sixteen nonmanufacturing industries covered reported higher average weekly earnings.

Table 1 presents a summary of employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in February 1937 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which certain items cannot be computed. The indexes of employment and pay rolls for the manufacturing industries are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100, and for the nonmanufacturing industries on the 12-month average of 1929 as 100. The information for the manufacturing industries, mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction covers wage earners only. For crude-petroleum producing it covers wage earners and clerical field force. The figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance cover all employees, including executives.

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, February 1937 (Preliminary Figures)

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index February 1937	Percentage change from—		Index February 1937	Percentage change from—		Average in February 1937	Percentage change from—	
		January 1937	February 1936		January 1937	February 1936		January 1937	February 1936
	(*1923–25 = 100*)			(*1923–25 = 100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	98.9	+2.5	+13.8	95.7	+5.6	+29.9	$24.74	+3.1	+14.2
Class I steam railroads [2]	61.4	+2.0	+6.2	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929 = 100*)			(*1929 = 100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	52.7	−2.6	−13.9	41.0	−3.9	−46.5	$22.66	−1.3	−37.9
Bituminous	84.8	+.2	+5.7	82.5	+3.0	+5.3	24.65	+2.8	−.4
Metalliferous mining	69.6	+4.2	+25.4	63.4	+8.5	+48.2	28.89	+4.1	+18.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	46.7	+2.1	+26.4	37.8	+9.1	+57.8	20.35	+6.8	+24.8
Crude-petroleum producing	73.5	+1.1	+3.8	63.5	+4.2	+14.1	31.44	+3.1	+9.9
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	74.8	+.4	+6.9	82.3	−1.9	+8.0	29.44	−2.3	+1.0
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.0	−.1	+6.9	93.2	+1.1	+10.1	32.90	+1.2	+3.0
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	72.5	+[4]	+1.1	68.7	+1.1	+.6	31.10	+1.1	−.5
Trade:									
Wholesale	92.0	+1.4	+8.3	74.1	+2.1	+11.2	28.68	+.6	+2.7
Retail	85.2	−.3	+6.9	67.9	−.1	+10.2	21.31	+.2	+3.1
General merchandizing	93.9	−1.2	+10.4	82.9	−1.1	+12.2	18.35	+.1	+1.7
Other than general merchandizing	82.9	−.1	+5.8	64.8	+.1	+9.6	23.66	+.2	+3.6
Hotels (year-round) [5]	86.4	+1.1	+4.3	72.5	+2.9	+9.0	14.44	+1.8	+4.5
Laundries	88.6	+.1	+9.1	76.3	−.1	+12.6	16.20	−.2	+3.2
Dyeing and cleaning	76.2	−.8	+8.3	54.6	−1.7	+11.5	17.71	−.9	+3.0
Brokerage	[3]	+2.5	+9.1	[3]	+3.5	+14.4	38.63	+.9	+4.9
Insurance	[3]	+.5	+1.6	[3]	+4.7	+6.0	37.44	+4.2	+4.4
Building construction	[3]	−.8	+55.1	[3]	−.5	+89.3	27.83	+.4	+21.4

[1] Revised and adjusted to Census of Manufactures totals for 1933.
[2] Preliminary: Source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[5] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

EMPLOYMENT on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds decreased during February. The total number of wage earners employed was 175,000, a decrease of 13.4 percent compared with the 202,000 employees in January. Decreases in employment occurred on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from funds provided by the National Industrial Recovery Act and on projects financed from funds provided by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935 and 1936. Pay-roll disbursements on the Public Works Program totaled $13,796,000.

In the Public Works Program, projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds for the building and repairing of locomotives and passenger and freight cars in shops operated by the railroads, and on locomotive and passenger- and freight-car building in commercial shops have been

completed. Loans made to railroads for work in their own shops from the beginning of the program in 1934 to the completion of this type of project in 1937 totaled in excess of $65,000,000. The value of material orders placed amounted to $50,749,000 and pay-roll disbursements totaled $16,613,000. In some instances the railroads supplemented the loans with their own funds. Approximately 25,820,000 man-hours of work were created in railroad shops. As a result of $62,715,000 for new equipment, it is estimated that from 1934 to 1936 pay-roll disbursements in commercial shops amounted to $13,702,000. More than 21,371,000 man-hours of work were performed in commercial shops.

A decrease was also reported in the number of workers employed on construction projects financed from regular governmental appropriations. During the month approximately 113,000 workers were employed, a decrease of 5.9 percent compared with January. Decreases in employment occurred on all types of projects with the exception of naval vessels, reclamation, and miscellaneous projects. Total pay-roll disbursements of $10,905,000 were 8.0 percent less than in January.

The number of wage earners employed on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in February totaled 7,000, a decrease of 11.3 percent compared with January. Increases in employment on reclamation and miscellaneous projects were offset by decreases on bridges, building construction, and water and sewerage projects. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled $865,000.

The number of wage earners employed on projects financed by The Works Program was 2,991,000. This was a decrease of 45,000, compared with the preceding month. Of this total, 268,000 were working on Federal projects; 2,126,000 on that part of the program, exclusive of National Youth Administration and Student-Aid projects, operated by the Works Progress Administration; 189,000 on National Youth Administration projects; and 408,000 on Student-Aid. Total pay-roll disbursements amounted to $135,000,000.

In the regular agencies of the Federal Government, a small increase was reported for the military service; decreases, however, occurred in the executive, judicial, and legislative services. The level of employment in the executive service decreased less than 1 percent in February, but was 3.6 percent higher than a year ago. Of the 827,000 employees in the executive service in February, 711,000 were working outside the District of Columbia and 116,000 in the District. The most pronounced increase in employment in the executive departments of the Federal Government in February occurred in the Post Office Department. There were appreciable decreases in the number of workers, on the other hand, in the War Department, the Depart-

ment of Labor, the Works Progress Administration, and the Interior Department.

Employment in emergency conservation work declined moderately during February. Total employment on this program was 395,000, a decrease of 3.2 percent compared with the 408,000 workers employed in January. Decreases in employment were shown for all groups of workers with the exception of supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements totaling $18,315,000 were $336,000 less than in the previous month.

More than 132,000 workers were employed on the construction and maintenance of State roads in February. Employment remained virtually the same compared with January but showed an increase of 2,000 over the number employed in February 1936. Of the total number engaged on the program in February 1937, 91.2 percent were working on maintenance and 8.8 percent on new construction. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled $8,561,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for January and February is given in table 2.

Table 2.—Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, February 1937 [1] (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay roll		Percentage change
	February	January		February	January	
Federal service:						
Executive [2]	[3] 826,721	830,183	−0.4	$126,536,301	[4] $129,246,912	−2.1
Judicial	1,919	1,952	−1.7	477,950	478,171	[5]
Legislative	5,044	5,308	−5.0	1,185,405	1,190,651	−.4
Military	314,216	[4] 311,001	+1.0	22,860,815	[4] 23,818,149	−4.0
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. [6]	[7] 174,990	[8] 202,175	−13.4	[7] 13,796,390	[8] 15,439,981	−10.7
Financed by R. F. C. [9]	7,299	8,232	−11.3	864,776	968,077	−10.7
Financed by regular governmental appropriations	112,770	119,853	−5.9	10,904,648	11,857,007	−8.0
Federal projects under The Works Program	267,525	328,867	−18.7	13,024,133	15,652,964	−16.8
Projects operated by W. P. A.	2,125,742	2,132,861	−.3	115,544,451	118,612,830	−2.6
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	189,228	184,686	+2.5	3,239,694	3,084,561	+5.0
Student aid	408,055	389,074	+4.9	3,110,991	2,804,693	+10.9
Relief work: Emergency conservation work [10]	394,521	[4] 407,723	−3.2	18,314,594	[4] 18,650,537	−1.8

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes employees of Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University.
[3] Includes 89 employees by transfer previously reported as separations, not actual additions for February.
[4] Revised.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program.
[7] Includes 115,214 wage earners and $8,428,606 pay roll covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds.
[8] Includes 131,153 wage earners and $9,346,663 pay roll covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds.
[9] Includes 20 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $1,075 for February and 32 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $1,314 for January on projects financed by RFC Mortgage Co.
[10] Includes 39,252 employees and pay roll of $5,440,943 for February and 38,415 employees and pay roll of $5,308,031 for January also included in executive service.

Detailed Reports for January 1937

THIS article presents the detailed figures on volume of employment, as compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the month of January 1937. The tabular data are the same as those published in the Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet for January, but may be revised to include reports that could not be supplied because of flood conditions and other causes. Any significant changes caused by the inclusion of such additional reports will be noted in the May issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

MONTHLY reports on employment and pay rolls in industrial and business industries are now available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in January 1937

THE indexes of employment and pay rolls, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in January 1937 are shown in table 1. Percentage changes from December 1936 and January 1936 are also given. The indexes for the manufacturing industries have been revised and adjusted to the Census of Manufactures for 1933.

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Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937

Manufacturing (indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures)

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—	
		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936
													Cents		
All manufacturing industries	**96.5**	**−1.6**	**+11.2**	**90.6**	**−4.7**	**+22.8**	**$24.04**	**−3.1**	**+10.5**	**39.6**	**−3.6**	**+5.9**	**59.7**	**+0.3**	**+4.0**
Durable goods	**90.3**	**−2.6**	**+14.7**	**86.5**	**−7.1**	**+29.3**	**26.58**	**−4.6**	**+12.7**	**40.6**	**−5.1**	**+6.8**	**64.3**	**−.2**	**+4.4**
Nondurable goods	**103.1**	**−.9**	**+8.1**	**95.9**	**−1.7**	**+16.2**	**21.32**	**−.9**	**+7.5**	**38.6**	**−1.9**	**+5.0**	**55.0**	**+1.1**	**+2.8**
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**100.0**	**−.4**	**+18.5**	**99.4**	**−2.5**	**+42.8**	**28.45**	**−2.2**	**+20.5**	**41.9**	**−2.9**	**+10.6**	**66.8**	**+.1**	**+7.7**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	111.5	+2.1	+20.7	115.9	+.4	+51.3	31.07	−1.6	+25.3	42.7	−1.8	+13.5	72.6	−.4	+10.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	86.5	+3.2	+19.9	96.9	−1.5	+35.9	25.90	−4.6	+13.4	43.1	−5.1	+7.6	60.2	+.5	+5.2
Cast-iron pipe	67.8	+1.4	+19.5	50.7	−3.5	+41.2	20.12	−4.9	+18.1	38.6	−5.8	+12.3	51.5	−.2	+3.8
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery), and edge tools	87.2	+.1	+10.6	81.2	−5.0	+22.6	23.34	−5.1	+10.9	42.8	−6.7	+8.8	55.4	+1.5	+1.5
Forgings, iron and steel	69.2	+1.4	+20.9	65.1	−3.6	+41.6	29.28	−5.0	+17.3	43.8	−7.4	+8.6	67.3	+2.6	+7.9
Hardware	80.2	−16.1	−1.2	75.2	−19.6	−2.4	21.19	−4.1	−1.4	39.3	+.3	−.2	54.0	−4.9	−1.7
Plumbers' supplies	90.7	+3.8	+10.1	68.7	−1.4	+27.6	23.46	−5.0	+16.1	40.3	−5.3	+12.0	58.1	+.3	+3.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	73.7	+.7	+28.1	69.1	+2.6	+54.3	27.41	+1.8	+20.4	42.3	−4.0	+10.6	64.9	+6.3	+9.3
Stoves	96.6	−10.4	+17.1	77.2	−19.5	+28.4	23.09	−10.2	+9.6	39.4	−8.8	+9.2	59.2	−.7	+.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork	70.8	+1.0	+31.0	63.3	−3.6	+50.8	25.27	−4.5	+15.1	40.4	−6.3	+8.6	62.6	+1.8	+6.0
Tin cans and other tinware	95.8	+1.4	+6.4	94.4	+1.0	+8.1	21.74	−.4	+1.6	39.4	−1.2	+1.0	55.6	+.5	+.5
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	97.5	+1.4	+23.2	102.8	−1.6	+32.1	24.69	−2.9	+7.3	44.7	−3.6	+4.2	55.4	+.9	+3.1
Wirework	178.8	−4.7	+19.7	161.0	−11.7	+32.1	22.79	−7.4	+11.5	40.0	−5.3	+7.9	57.1	−2.2	+3.5
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**114.8**	**+.6**	**+20.5**	**111.0**	**−2.3**	**+34.5**	**26.67**	**−2.9**	**+11.7**	**41.8**	**−4.1**	**+7.2**	**63.6**	**+.9**	**+4.6**
Agricultural implements	110.5	+7.4	−11.3	130.6	+7.5	−4.0	26.60	+.1	+8.4	41.0	+(2)	+2.2	65.4	+.3	+6.0
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	123.3	+2.2	+10.0	120.8	−1.7	+14.7	30.59	−3.8	+4.2	41.8	−3.0	−1.3	73.7	−1.0	+4.8
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	104.0	−1.7	+27.1	97.0	−5.9	+38.7	25.75	−4.2	+9.1	40.1	−5.1	+6.8	63.5	+.3	+2.4
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	125.3	+1.5	+12.0	120.3	+2.3	+24.4	29.98	+.8	+11.7	40.5	−1.3	+3.5	74.2	+2.3	+8.3
Foundry and machine-shop products	101.3	+2.0	+23.8	98.7	−1.4	+40.7	27.05	−3.4	+13.7	43.1	−4.4	+8.2	62.5	+.9	+5.4
	134.9	+3.2	+24.7	136.9	+1.1	+37.5	30.74	−2.1	+10.3	45.8	−3.8	+3.6	67.2	+1.8	+6.5

Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	104.0	−1.7	+27.1	97.0	−5.9	+38.7	25.75	−4.2	+9.1	40.1	−5.1	+6.8	63.5	+.3	+2.4
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	125.3	+1.5	+12.0	120.3	+2.3	+24.4	29.98	+.8	+11.7	40.5	−1.3	+3.5	74.2	+2.3	+8.3
Foundry and machine-shop products	101.3	+2.0	+23.8	98.7	−1.4	+40.7	27.05	−3.4	+13.7	43.1	−4.4	+8.2	62.5	+.9	+5.4
Machine tools	134.9	+3.2	+24.7	136.9	+1.1	+37.5	30.74	−2.1	+10.3	45.8	−3.8	+3.6	67.2	+1.8	+6.5
Radios and phonographs	186.8	−7.8	+6.1	145.4	−13.2	+20.5	20.38	−5.8	+13.6	36.3	−6.7	+8.8	56.2	+.9	+4.6
Textile machinery and parts	79.6	+3.5	+15.4	83.1	+5.5	+31.5	28.09	+1.9	+14.2	45.2	+1.1	+10.4	62.5	+.9	+3.5
Typewriters and parts	146.2	+1.8	+31.0	131.2	−4.7	+45.5	23.95	−6.4	+11.0	41.9	−6.0	+12.8	57.2	−.4	+1.6
Transportation equipment	**112.3**	**−8.0**	**+9.5**	**100.6**	**−16.8**	**+17.4**	**28.37**	**−9.5**	**+7.3**	**36.9**	**−8.4**	**+3.3**	**77.1**	**−1.6**	**+3.7**
Aircraft	722.3	+4.5	+64.2	603.8	−2.6	+62.8	26.31	−6.8	−3.3	42.8	−5.8	+.4	62.2	−1.0	−1.6
Automobiles	124.7	−10.1	+5.8	108.1	−20.3	+12.9	28.58	−11.4	+6.8	36.5	−10.0	+2.3	78.6	−1.6	+4.6
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	55.8	−1.9	+35.9	58.8	−1.8	+59.6	26.14	+.1	+18.3	40.0	−.3	+11.1	65.4	+.4	+5.4
Locomotives	44.9	+2.4	+102.1	31.1	−1.1	+170.6	27.07	−3.5	+33.8	41.5	−5.3	+26.0	65.3	+2.0	+6.2
Shipbuilding	94.0	+4.6	+9.6	96.1	+6.1	+16.5	28.61	+1.4	+6.2	36.0	+2.6	+3.4	78.7	−1.5	+2.3
Railroad repair shops	**61.2**	**0**	**+13.3**	**61.2**	**−6.6**	**+21.2**	**28.85**	**−6.5**	**+10.7**	**41.8**	**−6.4**	**+6.1**	**69.2**	**−.4**	**+.7**
Electric railroad	63.4	+[2]	+3.1	64.5	−4.4	+6.2	28.72	−4.4	+3.0	43.8	−2.9	+.5	64.3	−1.6	+2.3
Steam railroad	61.0	−[2]	+14.3	61.1	−6.8	+22.7	28.87	−6.8	+7.3	41.7	−6.6	+6.8	69.5	−.3	+.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	**107.0**	**−4.1**	**+12.6**	**97.1**	**−8.0**	**+27.6**	**24.50**	**−4.0**	**+13.2**	**41.1**	**−6.2**	**+5.7**	**59.1**	**+2.4**	**+7.3**
Aluminum manufactures	118.9	+1.0	+19.6	114.7	+[2]	+31.9	24.23	−1.0	+10.2	41.0	−3.9	+1.9	59.1	+3.1	+8.6
Brass, bronze, and copper products	118.5	+1.9	+19.0	113.1	+1.3	+38.5	27.05	−.6	+16.4	42.8	−3.0	+5.7	63.3	+2.5	+10.0
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	118.5	−2.3	+14.9	109.3	−7.2	+30.3	21.56	−5.0	+13.3	41.6	−6.9	+8.9	52.3	+2.4	+5.3
Jewelry	84.4	−9.0	+13.7	62.3	−16.4	+22.4	22.29	−8.2	+7.8	37.8	−8.4	+4.2	58.4	+.5	+1.4
Lighting equipment	73.3	−27.7	−3.7	69.4	−33.4	+4.3	23.73	−7.8	+8.2	40.8	−7.4	+2.2	58.4	−.4	+6.2
Silverware and plated ware	69.3	−5.6	+6.5	57.6	−19.3	+19.6	23.12	−14.5	+12.2	37.4	−21.0	+11.4	60.7	+3.7	−.8
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	80.4	−.8	+2.6	68.5	−2.3	+14.6	25.12	−1.5	+11.7	40.7	−4.0	+2.1	61.7	+2.5	+9.4
Stamped and enameled ware	154.8	−4.7	+13.6	148.4	−9.6	+29.7	22.50	−5.2	+14.1	41.1	−7.8	+7.7	55.0	+2.8	+7.0
Lumber and allied products	**64.8**	**−3.4**	**+9.5**	**54.9**	**−9.3**	**+19.6**	**18.81**	**−6.1**	**+9.3**	**41.0**	**−5.9**	**+4.5**	**45.9**	**−.8**	**+.9**
Furniture	85.9	−2.1	+21.3	71.4	−8.8	+39.2	19.78	−6.8	+14.9	41.8	−7.7	+8.2	47.6	+1.1	+6.3
Lumber:															
Millwork	53.9	−.4	+23.2	47.3	−6.7	+36.8	20.14	−6.4	+11.0	42.8	−6.3	+10.8	47.5	+[2]	+.1
Sawmills	46.6	−4.8	+.3	37.1	−10.8	+2.0	17.46	−6.3	+1.8	40.0	−4.6	+1.0	44.3	−2.3	+.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	**62.5**	**−6.9**	**+13.2**	**52.5**	**−11.2**	**+25.3**	**21.42**	**−4.7**	**+10.7**	**38.1**	**−4.6**	**+8.9**	**56.7**	**+.2**	**+1.2**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	45.5	−6.7	+25.3	36.2	−11.7	+44.8	19.27	−5.3	+15.7	40.5	−5.2	+11.9	47.9	−.1	+4.4
Cement	56.8	−8.3	+42.5	49.6	−15.6	+71.0	21.72	−8.0	+19.9	35.7	−10.3	+15.9	60.9	+2.5	+3.7
Glass	92.6	−8.0	−1.4	83.8	−11.9	+3.5	22.03	−4.2	+4.8	36.5	−3.2	+4.8	60.5	−.8	−.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	36.5	−10.9	+27.1	28.6	−13.9	+45.1	23.08	−3.3	+14.3	36.1	−5.7	+10.9	64.8	+3.1	+3.3
Pottery	75.5	−1.3	+8.8	63.7	−2.3	+25.8	22.45	−1.0	+15.6	40.4	−2.7	+10.9	55.7	+.1	+1.8
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	**107.1**	**+.7**	**+9.1**	**94.7**	**+.1**	**+18.1**	**17.81**	**−.6**	**+8.2**	**37.1**	**−1.9**	**+6.8**	**47.6**	**+.8**	**+.7**
Fabrics	102.3	+.6	+9.1	96.0	−.8	+22.0	17.70	−1.5	+11.8	38.8	−2.5	+7.7	45.5	+1.1	+3.5
Carpets and rugs	98.1	+.2	+22.8	95.9	−.7	+50.2	23.10	−.9	+22.3	40.2	−1.8	+18.4	58.0	+1.2	+3.4
Cotton goods	102.7	+1.3	+14.0	100.1	+1.9	+31.2	15.43	+.7	+15.0	39.4	−.9	+7.7	39.0	+1.4	+6.9
Cotton small wares	106.7	+.8	+10.2	104.3	−2.3	+17.8	18.25	−3.1	+7.0	39.8	−4.0	+6.3	45.9	+.4	+1.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles	122.3	−.4	+3.7	112.2	−3.6	+15.5	21.89	−3.2	+11.4	40.9	−4.3	+9.1	53.0	+1.1	+1.7
Hats, fur-felt	88.4	+3.3	+.8	86.4	+4.8	+15.7	26.49	+1.4	+14.8	36.9	−3.2	+4.4	71.3	+5.0	+6.3
Knit goods	120.4	−1.2	+8.3	120.2	−4.7	+17.9	17.39	−3.5	+8.9	36.9	−4.9	+9.0	48.3	+1.3	+.5
Silk and rayon goods	83.0	+1.9	+.6	68.5	+.2	+8.5	16.14	−1.7	+7.7	38.1	−1.5	+9.2	42.4	+[2]	−1.5
Woolen and worsted goods	92.5	+1.0	+4.3	83.1	−1.4	+16.7	20.66	−2.4	+11.8	38.8	−3.1	+4.6	53.4	+.8	+6.8

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. Percentage changes over year are computed from indexes. Percentage changes over month in average weekly earnings for the manufacturing groups, for all manufacturing industries combined, and for retail trade are also computed from indexes.

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937—Continued

Manufacturing (indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures)—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index January 1937	Percentage change from—	
		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Textiles and their products—Continued.													*Cents*		
Wearing apparel	115.5	+0.6	+9.2	88.2	+2.2	+10.4	[$18.16	+1.6	+1.2	33.5	−0.7	+5.0	52.0	+0.4	−4.0
Clothing, men's	109.8	+1.9	+5.5	87.8	+3.5	+10.3	19.29	+1.5	+4.6	33.6	+.8	+7.4	55.0	−1.5	−2.1
Clothing, women's	154.9	+.6	+9.3	107.9	+4.1	+8.7	19.24	+3.4	−.6	32.5	+.7	+4.5	56.0	+1.2	−5.7
Corsets and allied garments	89.0	−.3	+3.5	85.2	−3.2	+7.4	15.64	−3.0	+3.7	35.9	−.8	+9.6	43.5	−1.4	−4.9
Men's furnishings	127.0	−9.7	+16.7	91.4	−20.6	+11.9	13.22	−12.0	−4.2	35.3	−8.6	−4.1	33.5	−3.1	−3.1
Millinery	54.7	+21.9	+4.4	41.1	+40.9	+4.1	20.14	+15.6	−.4						
Shirts and collars	119.2	−2.9	+21.2	100.4	−10.4	+23.3	12.79	−7.8	+1.5	34.2	−7.6	+1.8	37.9	+.7	−1.9
Leather and its manufactures	**97.4**	**+3.6**	**+4.8**	**85.8**	**+9.6**	**+11.9**	**20.65**	**+5.8**	**+6.7**	**40.6**	**+4.0**	**+5.9**	**51.5**	**+1.3**	**+.8**
Boots and shoes	98.9	+5.1	+6.2	81.8	+14.7	+13.3	19.94	+9.1	+6.6	40.7	+5.8	+6.4	49.9	+1.5	+(2)
Leather	97.0	−1.4	(2)	102.5	−2.4	+8.2	23.55	−1.0	+8.3	40.2	−2.5	+3.5	57.8	+1.5	+3.9
Food and kindred products	**105.1**	**−5.0**	**+6.8**	**100.4**	**−5.0**	**+11.8**	**22.99**	**−.1**	**+4.6**	**41.3**	**−1.8**	**+2.1**	**55.8**	**+2.3**	**+4.7**
Baking	130.5	−1.2	+5.9	118.4	−1.2	+10.2	23.54	+.1	+4.1	42.2	−.7	+4.2	55.9	+.3	+2.6
Beverages	182.1	+.6	+12.9	186.9	−.4	+14.4	30.37	−1.0	+1.3	38.4	−1.4	−.5	79.6	+.5	+1.2
Butter	80.6	−1.3	+4.4	62.3	−1.1	+8.2	21.81	+.2	+3.6						
Canning and preserving	89.7	−7.3	+5.5	85.8	−5.5	+19.0	15.68	+2.0	+12.8	36.6	−.1	+10.8	44.0	+2.3	+5.9
Confectionery	79.9	−11.8	+6.9	76.2	−11.7	+13.8	17.32	+.2	+6.6	41.0	−3.4	+7.5	42.5	+4.4	−.8
Flour	74.5	+.3	−.9	71.4	+2.5	+3.9	23.92	+2.2	+4.9	43.9	+.6	+3.9	53.8	+1.3	+.3
Ice cream	61.1	−.2	+7.0	55.8	+1.2	+12.5	27.72	+1.4	+5.1	46.6	+(2)	+2.6	58.6	+1.4	+1.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	96.4	−3.0	+11.6	95.8	−5.6	+15.9	24.90	−2.7	+3.9	42.3	−4.1	−.9	59.4	+1.8	+5.3
Sugar, beet	38.1	−77.9	−9.7	41.9	−72.4	−2.1	25.37	+25.0	+8.4	37.8	−15.8	−3.5	67.6	+49.7	+13.4
Sugar refining, cane	61.6	−10.6	−18.4	50.9	−14.2	−19.7	22.15	−4.0	−1.6	37.9	−7.1	−1.6	56.0	+3.0	−4.8
Tobacco manufactures	**57.4**	**−9.3**	**+4.6**	**47.2**	**−14.8**	**+9.8**	**15.23**	**−6.1**	**+5.0**	**34.8**	**−8.1**	**+.8**	**43.8**	**+2.6**	**+4.3**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	57.2	+1.4	−.6	62.8	−3.1	+4.7	16.42	−4.4	+5.5	36.3	−3.4	+1.4	45.3	−1.0	+4.1
Cigars and cigarettes	57.3	−10.6	+5.1	45.3	−16.6	+10.7	14.95	−6.7	+5.5	34.6	−8.7	+.9	43.6	+3.0	+4.3
Paper and printing	**104.3**	**−1.6**	**+6.4**	**98.7**	**−3.8**	**+13.6**	**27.50**	**−2.3**	**+6.7**	**40.4**	**−2.9**	**+5.3**	**70.9**	**+.4**	**+1.3**
Boxes, paper	100.1	−5.8	+9.5	98.0	−9.5	+19.3	19.84	−3.9	+9.0	40.9	−7.7	+8.2	49.0	+3.8	+.7
Paper and pulp	113.7	+.8	+6.1	109.9	+1.2	+20.7	24.22	+.4	+13.9	43.3	−1.5	+7.2	55.9	+1.8	+5.8
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	96.2	−1.3	+9.4	91.4	−1.9	+15.5	30.24	−.6	+5.5	40.5	−1.4	+5.0	76.0	+1.1	+.3
Newspapers and periodicals	103.4	−2.4	+2.3	97.2	−7.8	+5.0	35.23	−5.5	+2.6	36.7	−4.0	+2.0	92.7	−2.0	+.9
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	**120.3**	**+.8**	**+7.6**	**119.5**	**+1.0**	**+19.0**	**25.97**	**+.1**	**+10.6**	**39.4**	**−1.6**	**+2.8**	**67.0**	**+1.9**	**+8.3**
Other than petroleum refining	120.5	+1.0	+8.8	119.5	+1.3	+21.0	24.03	+.3	+11.2	40.7	−1.2	+3.6	59.8	+1.5	+8.5
Chemicals	130.8	+1.3	+14.6	131.8	−.5	+27.1	28.06	−1.8	+11.0	40.2	−2.5	+2.2	69.7	+.8	+8.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	91.1	−7.1	+12.4	76.2	−7.1	+24.7	11.59	0	+10.7	53.1	−3.0	+11.2	22.0	+3.4	−(2)
Druggists' preparations	106.5	−.1	+4.9	113.1	+.5	+11.4	23.23	+.6	+6.2	39.8	−.9	+3.0	56.1	+3.1	+3.0
				97.8	−.2	+35.4	28.66	−1.1	+17.0	39.7	−.5	+9.5	72.2	−.6	+7.1
													37.3	+1.0	+4.5

Other than petroleum refining	120.5	+1.0	+8.8	119.5	+1.3	+21.0	24.03	+.3	+11.2	40.7	−1.2	+3.6	59.8	+1.5	+8.5
Chemicals	130.8	+1.3	+14.6	131.8	−.5	+27.1	28.06	−1.8	+11.0	40.2	−2.5	+2.2	69.7	+.8	+8.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	91.1	−7.1	+12.4	76.2	−7.1	+24.7	11.59	0	+10.7	53.1	−3.0	+11.2	22.0	+3.4	−(2)
Druggists' preparations	106.5	−.1	+4.9	113.1	+.5	+11.4	23.23	+.6	+6.2	39.8	−.9	+3.0	56.1	+3.1	+3.0
Explosives	94.0	+.9	+15.7	97.8	−.2	+35.4	28.66	−1.1	+17.0	39.7	−.5	+9.5	72.2	−.6	+7.1
Fertilizers	86.6	+7.7	+7.4	79.6	+11.2	+22.5	14.85	+3.3	+14.0	39.7	+2.2	+9.7	37.3	+1.0	+4.5
Paints and varnishes	128.0	+.4	+6.9	120.3	−1.1	+15.6	25.91	−1.5	+8.2	41.2	−2.4	+3.7	63.0	+.8	+4.1
Rayon and allied products	367.6	+1.4	+5.8	338.1	+5.2	+21.2	22.65	+3.8	+14.5	39.0	+1.7	+1.7	58.1	+2.0	+12.6
Soap	100.9	+2.0	+5.6	107.4	+3.0	+15.3	26.39	+.9	+9.3	39.7	−1.1	+.6	66.7	+2.1	+8.7
Petroleum refining	119.4	−.1	+3.1	119.5	+(1)	+12.9	31.03	+.1	+9.4	35.5	−2.9	−.4	88.2	+2.9	+9.4
Rubber products	**101.2**	**−.7**	**+18.2**	**99.0**	**−5.5**	**+26.9**	**26.28**	**−4.9**	**+7.4**	**37.0**	**−5.5**	**+2.5**	**72.9**	**+.8**	**+5.0**
Rubber boots and shoes	77.3	−6.3	+8.9	66.8	−13.1	+18.0	21.50	−7.3	+8.4	38.6	−7.5	−(2)	55.7	+.2	+6.9
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	138.7	+.7	+17.2	136.3	−2.1	+32.5	22.69	−2.8	+13.1	41.6	−3.4	+10.1	55.3	+.4	+3.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes	92.6	+.1	+22.0	93.9	−5.8	+25.9	29.91	−5.9	+3.2	33.5	−6.6	−1.8	89.3	+.8	+4.3

Nonmanufacturing (indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100)

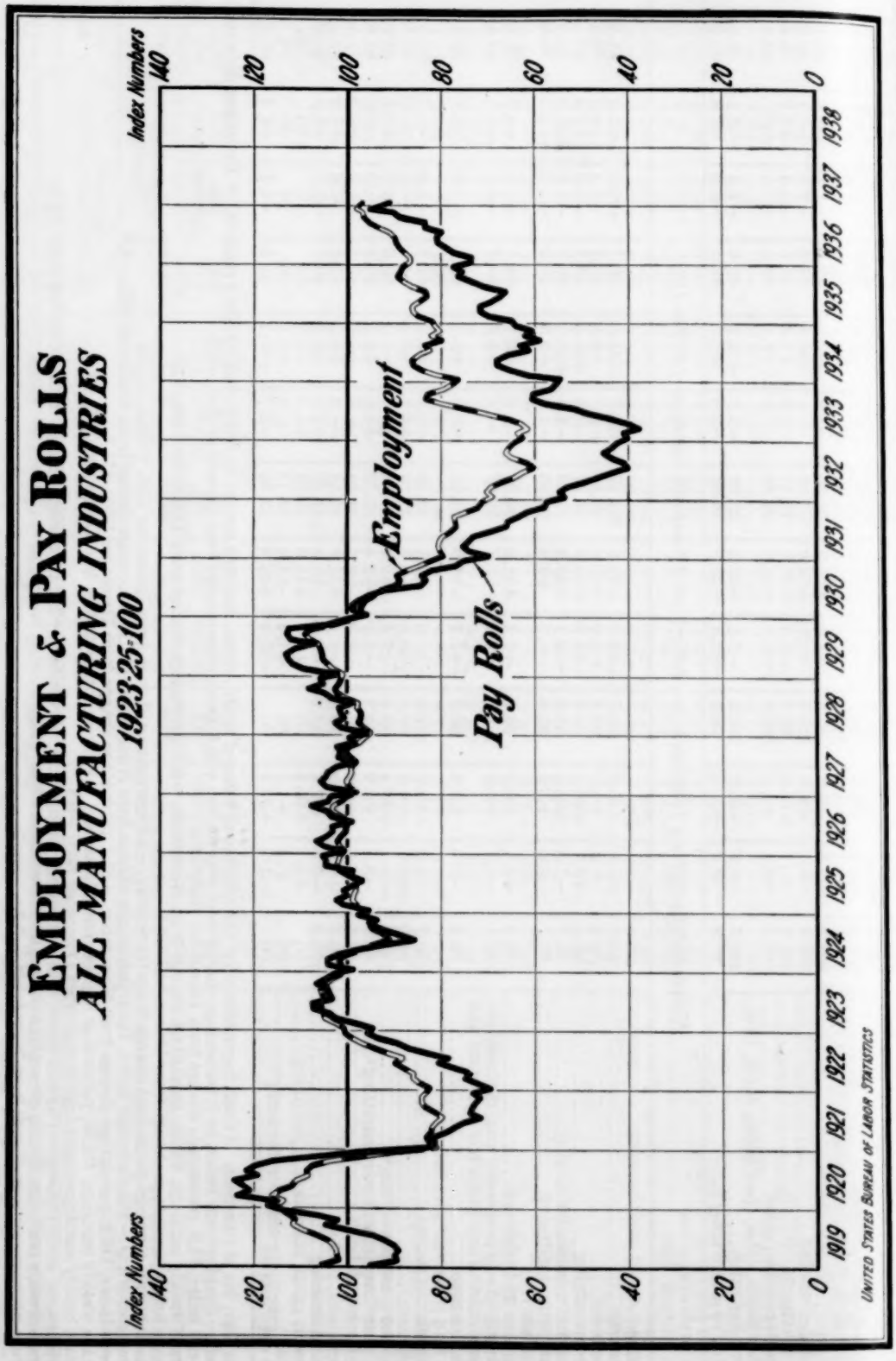
Coal mining:															
Anthracite	54.1	−1.3	−8.4	42.7	−22.9	−21.5	$22.97	−21.9	−14.3	27.7	−20.2	−11.9	81.2	−3.4	−2.3
Bituminous	84.6	+.9	+6.1	80.1	−5.9	+13.4	23.96	−6.7	+6.9	30.7	−6.2	+4.8	79.5	−.1	+1.7
Metalliferous mining	66.8	+3.7	+23.2	58.4	+1.2	+39.9	27.77	−2.5	+13.5	43.2	−3.0	+5.6	64.5	+.3	+8.4
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	45.7	−7.5	+16.1	34.6	−12.1	+35.9	19.04	−4.9	+17.1	38.3	−6.6	+11.9	50.2	+1.4	+4.2
Crude-petroleum producing	72.7	+.5	+2.3	61.0	−.5	+9.4	31.08	−1.0	+6.8	39.0	−1.8	+5.1	79.2	+1.2	+.9
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph	74.4	+1.1	+6.3	83.8	+1.8	+11.8	30.07	+.6	+5.2	39.7	+2.7	+3.3	79.1	−1.9	+2.2
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.1	−1.3	+6.9	92.3	−1.7	+8.7	32.47	−.4	+1.7	39.7	−2.4	+1.1	82.4	+2.2	+1.9
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.5	−.1	+2.5	68.0	−1.9	+4.6	30.84	−1.8	+2.1	46.1	−1.6	+.1	66.1	−.5	+2.1
Trade:															
Wholesale	90.7	−.3	+6.0	72.6	−.3	+9.1	28.29	+.1	+2.9	42.1	−1.9	+.5	67.1	+2.1	+1.9
Retail[4]	85.9	−14.1	+6.8	67.9	−10.6	+9.3	21.52	+4.1	+2.5	44.1	−.9	+.9	52.7	+5.2	+1.4
General merchandising[4]	97.4	−33.1	+10.4	83.5	−28.5	+9.3	18.72	+6.9	−1.0	42.0	−3.9	+2.4	46.6	+11.6	−.6
Other than general merchandising[4]	82.9	−5.8	+5.8	64.7	−4.1	+9.4	23.72	+1.8	+3.4	44.8	−.2	+.6	54.5	+1.7	+2.1
Hotels (year-round)[3]	85.5	+1.8	+4.3	70.4	+.9	+8.5	14.24	−.8	+4.0	48.1	−1.2	+.2	28.8	+.2	+3.5
Laundries	88.5	+1.0	+8.6	76.4	+.4	+11.9	16.18	−.6	+3.1	42.8	−.6	+1.8	37.5	+.1	+1.3
Dyeing and cleaning	76.8	−1.1	+7.4	55.6	−3.1	+7.8	17.67	−2.0	+.3	40.7	−2.7	−1.3	44.2	+.2	+1.6
Brokerage	(4)	+2.1	+10.2	(4)	+3.7	+15.6	38.83	+1.6	+5.0	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance	(4)	+.3	+1.1	(4)	+1.3	+3.3	39.12	+.9	+2.1	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction	(4)	−11.5	+32.8	(4)	−13.9	+52.8	27.85	−2.7	+15.1	31.6	−4.5	+4.3	87.7	+1.9	+10.5

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent. [2] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed. [4] Not available. [5] December data revised as follows:

Retail trade.—Employment index, 99.6; percentage change from November, +10.5; percentage change from December 1935, +7.2.
Pay-roll index, 75.9; percentage change from December 1935, +9.5.
Average weekly earnings, $20.01; percentage change from November, −2.0; percentage change from December 1935, +2.1.
Average hours-percentage change from November, +0.8.
Average hourly earnings-percentage change from November, −3.1; percentage change from December 1935, +0.8.
General merchandising.—Employment index, 143.4; percentage change from November, +31.2; percentage change from December 1935, +8.9.
Pay-roll index, 116.2; percentage change from November, +27.1; percentage change from December 1935, +11.2.
Average weekly earnings, $16.90; percentage change from November, −3.2; percentage change from December 1935, +2.1.
Average hourly earnings-percentage change from December 1935, −0.8.
Other than general merchandising.—Pay-roll index, 67.6; percentage change from November, +2.8; percentage change from December 1935, +8.9.
Average weekly earnings, $23.58; percentage change from December 1935, +2.3.
Average hours-percentage change from November, −0.2.

Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls, 1919 to 1937

GENERAL indexes of factory employment and pay rolls, adjusted to the 1933 Census of Manufactures, are given in table 2 for the



months January 1919 to January 1937. Similar indexes for the durable and nondurable-goods groups, by months, January 1923 to January 1937, are presented in table 3. The accompanying chart

indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls as shown by the adjusted indexes. Indexes for 13 nonmanufacturing industries including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, are presented in table 4.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover only wage earners. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100. In January 1937 reports were received from 24,440 manufacturing establishments employing 4,512,073 workers whose weekly earnings were $108,426,345. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for nonmanufacturing industries are also computed from data supplied by reporting establishments, but the base is the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

Table 2.—General Indexes of Factory Employment and Pay Rolls, by Months, January 1919 to January 1937, adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures

[1923–25=100]

Month and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Employment													
1919	104.8	101.6	101.9	102.0	102.6	103.8	106.5	109.1	111.2	110.8	112.0	113.8	106.7
1920	114.3	113.3	115.5	114.0	111.5	110.6	108.1	108.4	107.1	103.4	97.2	89.6	107.8
1921	80.9	82.4	83.0	82.0	81.8	80.9	79.7	81.3	83.3	84.1	84.2	83.2	82.2
1922	82.5	84.5	85.7	85.5	87.8	89.5	87.8	91.0	94.0	96.7	98.4	99.7	90.3
1923	100.8	102.6	104.7	105.2	105.3	106.0	104.9	105.2	105.6	104.4	103.1	101.3	104.1
1924	100.1	101.5	101.7	100.0	96.7	93.8	90.8	92.1	94.3	95.1	94.7	96.1	96.4
1925	96.5	98.2	99.1	98.9	98.2	98.1	98.0	99.7	101.6	102.2	101.9	101.6	99.5
1926	100.7	101.7	102.2	101.5	100.4	100.4	99.4	101.4	103.5	103.1	101.3	100.0	101.3
1927	98.2	99.7	100.3	99.6	99.0	99.1	98.0	99.3	100.4	99.5	97.3	96.0	98.9
1928	94.8	96.4	97.4	97.0	97.0	97.6	97.5	100.1	102.1	102.4	101.5	101.0	98.7
1929	100.6	102.9	104.1	105.3	105.2	105.4	105.9	107.7	108.7	107.5	103.3	99.6	104.7
1930	97.1	97.1	96.7	96.1	94.5	92.6	89.3	88.6	89.5	87.6	84.4	82.1	91.3
1931	79.5	80.1	80.5	80.4	79.8	78.0	76.9	77.0	77.3	74.6	72.0	71.2	77.3
1932	69.1	70.3	69.3	67.1	64.6	62.5	60.4	61.8	65.1	66.3	65.5	64.3	65.5
1933	62.6	63.7	61.5	62.9	65.8	70.2	74.9	79.6	83.2	82.8	79.5	77.6	72.0
1934	76.5	81.1	84.4	86.0	86.2	84.9	82.5	83.6	80.1	82.2	80.4	81.5	82.5
1935	82.2	85.1	86.2	86.3	84.8	83.2	83.5	86.3	88.1	89.4	88.8	88.3	86.0
1936	86.8	86.9	87.9	89.1	89.8	90.1	91.2	93.5	95.5	96.7	96.9	98.1	91.9
1937	96.5												

Table 2.—General Indexes of Factory Employment and Pay Rolls, by Months, January 1919 to January 1937, adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—Continued

[1923–25=100]

Month and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Pay rolls													
1919	96.2	90.4	91.0	90.0	90.9	92.9	95.6	100.9	105.7	103.2	107.7	115.0	98.3
1920	118.3	116.7	124.8	122.0	123.5	125.3	120.4	122.7	120.9	116.9	108.1	99.0	118.2
1921	83.7	82.1	82.4	79.7	78.1	76.2	72.4	74.6	74.2	73.4	72.5	74.0	76.9
1922	70.3	73.1	75.3	74.2	77.6	80.9	78.6	83.2	87.1	89.6	93.4	95.7	81.6
1923	94.8	98.1	102.8	104.1	107.5	107.7	103.4	103.8	104.2	106.5	104.4	102.8	103.3
1924	98.7	104.1	104.1	101.9	97.5	92.2	85.4	89.2	92.3	94.9	93.4	97.7	96.0
1925	95.7	100.9	102.6	100.1	100.8	98.8	96.9	99.5	98.8	104.7	104.7	105.1	100.7
1926	100.9	105.1	106.6	104.3	103.0	103.2	98.9	103.3	104.3	107.4	104.0	103.3	103.7
1927	98.2	104.3	105.7	104.3	104.1	102.4	98.4	101.7	101.2	102.0	98.4	99.4	101.7
1928	95.9	101.1	102.6	100.5	101.3	101.7	99.1	103.2	104.6	108.2	105.0	105.7	102.4
1929	102.4	109.3	111.6	112.7	112.9	111.2	107.1	112.0	112.8	112.3	104.1	100.5	109.1
1930	95.6	98.6	98.6	97.5	95.1	92.0	84.1	83.1	83.8	82.0	76.6	75.0	88.5
1931	69.9	74.1	75.4	74.2	73.1	69.5	66.1	65.8	63.3	61.4	58.1	57.5	67.4
1932	53.6	54.8	53.1	49.4	46.8	43.5	40.2	41.0	43.5	45.3	43.5	42.3	46.4
1933	40.1	41.0	37.9	39.8	43.7	48.1	51.7	57.7	60.6	60.4	56.5	55.5	49.4
1934	54.6	61.3	65.6	68.1	68.1	66.0	61.4	63.2	59.1	62.2	60.7	64.2	62.9
1935	65.0	70.0	71.7	71.7	69.4	67.4	66.5	71.0	73.7	76.4	75.6	77.6	71.3
1936	73.8	73.7	77.6	79.3	80.8	81.1	80.2	83.5	83.6	89.0	90.7	95.1	82.4
1937	90.6												

Table 3.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups, January 1923 to January 1937, Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures

Durable group [1]

[1923–25=100]

Month and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
	Employment												
1923	99.1	101.5	104.0	105.7	106.6	107.8	106.6	106.5	106.1	105.4	104.3	101.9	104.6
1924	100.6	102.1	103.1	102.7	98.8	94.7	91.0	90.9	91.8	93.4	93.1	94.6	96.4
1925	95.4	97.1	98.4	99.4	99.2	98.5	97.4	98.2	99.6	101.3	101.6	101.7	99.0
1926	100.8	102.2	103.1	103.4	102.7	102.2	101.0	102.0	102 6	102.1	100.2	98.2	101.7
1927	95.5	97.2	98.1	98.1	98.0	97.1	95.0	95.4	95.0	94.4	92.1	90.9	95.6
1928	89.8	91.8	93.7	94.7	96.1	96.6	95.7	98.0	99.3	99.7	99.1	98.7	96.1
1929	99.0	101.7	103.4	105.3	106.4	106.4	106.3	107.3	106.8	105.1	100.4	95.9	103.7
1930	93.1	93.4	93.2	92.9	91.9	89.1	84.7	82.3	81.1	79.6	77.1	74.9	86.1
1931	72.0	72.1	72.0	72.0	71.3	69.3	66.7	65.4	64.6	62.0	60.4	60.0	67.3
1932	57.7	58.4	57.3	55.6	54.1	52.3	50.0	48.7	49.2	49.8	50.3	49.8	52.8
1933	48.1	48.7	46.9	47.6	50.4	54.2	58.8	63.6	66.9	66.7	64.8	64.1	56.7
1934	63.2	67.0	70.9	73.9	75.6	74.8	71.4	70.0	68.1	66.7	66.1	68.1	69.7
1935	70.0	73.4	75.1	75.9	75.4	73.5	73.4	74.7	75.4	79.2	80.3	80.0	75.5
1936	78.7	78.6	80.2	82.3	84.0	84.7	84.6	84.7	85.7	89.2	91.0	92.7	84.7
1937	90.3												
	Pay rolls												
1923	91.6	95.8	101.4	104.6	109.2	110.0	104.5	106.1	105.2	108.9	107.3	104.0	104.1
1924	97.9	105.4	106.5	105.8	100.3	92.9	83.8	87.2	88.9	92.9	91.6	95.7	95.7
1925	92.6	99.8	101.9	100.9	102.0	99.3	95.4	97.5	97.1	104.5	105.3	105.6	100.2
1926	99.0	105.2	107.3	106.5	105.2	104.9	99.1	103.7	103.1	107.0	103.2	100.9	103.8
1927	93.3	101.1	103.5	103.2	103.3	99.9	93.9	97.5	95.1	96.8	93.3	94.1	97.9
1928	89.5	96.9	99.5	99.8	101.9	101.2	97.1	102.0	102.3	107.0	104.1	103.9	100.4
1929	100.0	108.9	112.0	114.7	115.8	112.9	107.2	112.7	111.8	111.2	101.9	96.9	108.8
1930	90.2	94.8	95.3	95.4	93.4	89.2	78.2	75.7	74.8	73.9	68.5	66.5	83.0
1931	59.9	64.4	65.6	65.0	64.0	59.3	54.3	52.9	49.6	48.6	46.4	45.9	56.3
1932	41.5	42.3	40.3	38.1	37.1	33.6	30.2	28.8	28.8	30.8	30.9	30.4	34.4
1933	28.6	28.8	26.7	28.1	32.3	36.2	39.4	45.2	46.7	46.8	43.9	43.7	37.2
1934	42.7	48.9	53.9	58.6	60.1	58.6	51.4	51.4	47.0	48.1	47.8	51.9	51.7
1935	53.8	60.1	62.0	63.2	61.4	59.1	57.3	61.0	62.9	68.4	69.9	71.5	62.6
1936	66.9	66.6	71.8	76.0	78.5	79.0	75.9	77.0	77.2	85.3	88.9	93.1	78.0
1937	86.5												

[1] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

Table 3.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups, January 1923 to January 1937, Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—Continued

Nondurable group[2]

Month and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Employment													
1923	102.6	103.8	105.5	104.5	104.0	104.1	103.1	103.8	105.1	103.3	101.8	100.6	103.5
1924	99.6	100.9	100.2	97.1	94.5	92.8	90.6	93.3	96.9	97.0	96.4	97.8	96.4
1925	97.8	99.4	99.7	98.4	97.2	97.7	98.7	101.3	103.7	103.3	102.2	101.4	100.1
1926	100.7	101.1	101.2	99.4	98.0	98.5	97.7	100.8	104.4	104.2	102.5	101.9	100.9
1927	101.1	102.3	102.6	101.2	100.0	101.1	101.3	103.4	106.3	105.0	102.9	101.4	102.4
1928	100.2	101.4	101.3	99.4	98.0	98.8	99.4	102.2	105.1	105.3	104.1	103.5	101.6
1929	102.3	104.2	104.9	105.4	103.8	104.3	105.5	108.1	110.7	110.1	106.4	103.5	105.8
1930	101.3	101.1	100.5	99.6	97.3	96.3	94.2	95.3	98.6	96.2	92.2	89.8	96.9
1931	87.5	88.7	89.5	89.4	88.9	87.4	87.8	89.5	91.0	88.1	84.3	83.2	87.9
1932	81.4	83.0	82.2	79.5	75.9	73.4	71.5	75.9	82.2	83.9	81.8	79.8	79.2
1933	78.2	79.9	77.1	79.3	82.2	87.3	92.2	96.8	100.7	100.1	95.3	92.0	88.4
1934	90.8	96.1	98.8	99.0	97.5	95.7	94.3	98.2	92.9	98.9	95.7	95.9	96.2
1935	95.4	97.5	98.1	97.4	94.9	93.6	94.4	98.7	101.7	100.3	97.8	97.2	97.3
1936	95.4	95.8	96.1	96.3	96.0	95.9	98.2	102.8	105.9	104.7	103.3	104.0	99.5
1937	103.1												
Pay rolls													
1923	98.9	101.0	104.5	103.4	105.3	104.7	102.0	100.9	102.9	103.4	100.6	101.3	102.4
1924	99.7	102.3	100.9	96.9	93.9	91.1	87.3	91.7	96.6	97.5	95.7	100.2	96.2
1925	99.8	102.2	103.4	99.1	99.3	98.2	98.8	102.0	101.0	104.9	103.9	104.4	101.4
1926	103.5	105.0	105.6	101.7	100.2	101.1	98.7	102.8	105.7	108.0	105.0	106.4	103.6
1927	104.4	108.3	108.6	105.7	105.1	105.6	104.0	107.1	108.9	108.5	104.8	106.2	106.4
1928	103.9	106.5	106.4	101.3	100.6	102.3	101.5	104.8	107.7	109.7	106.1	108.1	104.9
1929	105.5	109.8	111.1	110.1	109.3	109.0	107.0	111.1	114.0	113.8	106.8	105.2	109.4
1930	102.4	103.3	102.8	100.1	97.4	95.5	91.5	92.5	95.2	92.4	86.9	85.8	95.5
1931	82.8	86.5	87.9	86.0	84.8	82.4	81.1	82.3	80.7	77.7	73.0	72.3	81.5
1932	68.9	70.7	69.4	63.9	59.1	56.1	52.8	56.4	62.1	63.8	59.5	57.4	61.7
1933	54.6	56.4	52.2	54.8	58.2	63.3	67.3	73.5	78.3	77.7	72.4	70.4	64.9
1934	69.7	77.1	80.4	80.1	78.3	75.4	74.2	78.3	74.5	80.0	77.0	79.8	77.1
1935	79.3	82.6	84.0	82.5	79.5	77.9	78.2	83.7	87.3	86.5	82.8	85.3	82.5
1936	82.5	82.7	84.9	83.5	83.8	83.9	85.6	91.8	91.6	93.7	92.9	97.6	87.9
1937	95.9												

[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products; leather and its manufactures; food and kindred products; tobacco manufactures; paper and printing; chemicals and allied products; products of petroleum and coal; rubber products; and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

Table 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to January 1937[1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous-coal mining				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	80.1	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2		76.7		80.2		78.4		55.5		42.8		36.9		23.9	
March	52.5		42.6		80.4		70.2		55.9		45.1		42.2		30.9	
April	49.8		28.6		77.5		62.6		57.5		45.5		48.4		36.1	
May	54.9		56.3		76.2		62.2		60.8		47.7		52.0		42.1	
June	51.2		42.0		75.7		61.5		61.9		48.2		53.5		44.0	
July	48.4		37.2		75.5		62.6		61.3		46.1		54.4		43.9	
August	41.1		31.4		76.9		65.4		61.6		48.2		55.3		46.2	
September	47.6		34.9		78.2		71.0		63.1		50.0		54.9		44.8	
October	49.9		48.5		81.1		79.2		64.2		53.7		54.6		46.2	
November	51.5		40.3		82.3		80.7		62.9		54.6		52.6		43.5	
December	54.8		55.4		83.9		85.0		64.4		57.7		49.4		39.4	
Average	51.8		45.7		79.0		70.8		60.3		48.4		49.5		38.9	

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Table 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to January 1937—Continued

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [2]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	61.0	70.1	74.4	75.0	83.8	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.2	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	.....	55.7	.....	69.9	.....	76.2	.....	86.1	.....	84.7	.....	71.7	.....	68.3	.....
March	70.9	.....	56.0	.....	70.2	.....	77.2	.....	86.8	.....	85.9	.....	71.2	.....	67.8	.....
April	71.3	.....	57.1	.....	70.8	.....	76.0	.....	88.0	.....	86.2	.....	71.3	.....	65.9	.....
May	72.7	.....	58.0	.....	71.6	.....	78.5	.....	89.0	.....	87.0	.....	71.5	.....	66.1	.....
June	73.7	.....	58.9	.....	72.1	.....	77.4	.....	90.4	.....	88.1	.....	[3]71.7	.....	66.8	.....
July	75.4	.....	60.4	.....	73.1	.....	79.9	.....	91.7	.....	89.8	.....	72.4	.....	66.5	.....
August	75.0	.....	59.7	.....	73.5	.....	81.2	.....	93.1	.....	89.8	.....	72.4	.....	66.5	.....
September	74.5	.....	60.4	.....	73.7	.....	78.8	.....	93.5	.....	91.4	.....	72.8	.....	66.4	.....
October	73.6	.....	59.6	.....	73.8	.....	83.1	.....	94.0	.....	92.7	.....	73.1	.....	67.7	.....
November	73.2	.....	60.1	.....	73.7	.....	81.6	.....	93.5	.....	91.8	.....	73.0	.....	69.7	.....
December	72.4	.....	61.3	.....	73.6	.....	82.4	.....	93.2	.....	93.8	.....	72.5	.....	69.3	.....
Average	72.9	.....	58.6	.....	72.2	.....	78.9	.....	90.5	.....	88.8	.....	72.0	.....	67.2	.....

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	.....	66.6	.....	79.7	.....	61.6	.....	85.1	.....	73.9	.....	78.3	.....	59.1	.....
March	85.6	.....	69.0	.....	81.9	.....	63.5	.....	90.9	.....	77.3	.....	79.5	.....	60.7	.....
April	85.7	.....	67.9	.....	85.2	.....	65.3	.....	97.4	.....	81.0	.....	82.0	.....	62.1	.....
May	84.6	.....	68.2	.....	85.0	.....	65.8	.....	95.5	.....	80.8	.....	82.3	.....	62.7	.....
June	84.6	.....	68.4	.....	85.5	.....	66.4	.....	96.4	.....	81.3	.....	82.6	.....	63.3	.....
July	85.4	.....	69.0	.....	83.2	.....	65.1	.....	90.7	.....	77.3	.....	81.2	.....	62.6	.....
August	86.3	.....	69.7	.....	82.4	.....	64.4	.....	89.4	.....	76.4	.....	80.5	.....	61.9	.....
September	88.0	.....	70.5	.....	86.6	.....	66.6	.....	98.5	.....	82.8	.....	83.5	.....	63.3	.....
October	89.0	.....	71.5	.....	88.7	.....	68.3	.....	103.9	.....	87.2	.....	84.7	.....	64.4	.....
November	89.7	.....	73.1	.....	90.1	.....	70.1	.....	109.3	.....	91.4	.....	85.1	.....	65.7	.....
December	91.0	.....	72.8	.....	[3]99.6	.....	[3]75.9	.....	[3]143.4	.....	[3]116.2	.....	88.1	.....	[3]67.6	.....
Average	86.7	.....	69.4	.....	85.7	.....	66.3	.....	[3]99.1	.....	[3]83.5	.....	82.2	.....	62.7	.....

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	.....	66.5	.....	81.2	.....	67.8	.....	70.3	.....	49.0	.....
March	82.8	.....	66.0	.....	82.1	.....	69.9	.....	74.7	.....	56.4	.....
April	83.2	.....	66.3	.....	83.2	.....	70.9	.....	81.8	.....	64.1	.....
May	84.1	.....	67.0	.....	85.5	.....	75.6	.....	87.3	.....	72.2	.....
June	83.9	.....	66.6	.....	87.2	.....	75.8	.....	87.5	.....	69.2	.....
July	83.3	.....	66.0	.....	90.5	.....	79.0	.....	85.5	.....	64.8	.....
August	83.2	.....	66.1	.....	89.6	.....	76.7	.....	83.5	.....	63.2	.....
September	84.2	.....	67.5	.....	89.6	.....	76.6	.....	86.7	.....	66.1	.....
October	85.4	.....	69.6	.....	87.6	.....	75.3	.....	86.5	.....	66.7	.....
November	84.6	.....	69.6	.....	87.0	.....	74.5	.....	81.3	.....	60.2	.....
December	84.0	.....	69.8	.....	87.6	.....	76.1	.....	77.7	.....	57.3	.....
Average	83.6	.....	67.2	.....	86.1	.....	73.9	.....	81.2	.....	61.7	.....

[2] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 3.

[3] Revised.

Trend of Industrial and Business Employment, by States

A COMPARISON of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in December 1936 and January 1937, is shown in table 5 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined, based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries and each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 except building construction.

Table 5.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in December 1936 and January 1937 by Geographic Divisions and by States

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Amount of pay roll (1 week) January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Amount of pay roll (1 week) January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	**13,620**	**918,132**	**−1.9**	**21,192,956**	**−1.5**	**3,472**	**650,395**	**+0.8**	**14,605,905**	**−0.1**
Maine	762	55,791	+.3	1,171,521	+2.7	275	46,044	+2.1	938,208	+3.7
New Hampshire	585	37,537	+3.0	806,404	+5.5	194	30,958	+5.3	646,050	+7.4
Vermont	446	17,901	−.4	393,078	−.9	146	12,092	+1.3	266,245	+.8
Massachusetts	[1] *8,584*	*498,558*	*−3.0*	*11,638,647*	*−1.8*	*1,700*	*305,029*	*+.5*	*6,876,448*	*+.5*
Rhode Island	1,234	98,396	−1.0	2,182,856	−.8	423	80,167	+1.1	1,705,808	−.1
Connecticut	2,009	209,949	−1.0	5,000,450	−3.1	734	176,105	+.2	4,173,146	−3.0
Middle Atlantic	**28,737**	**2,156,160**	**−3.9**	**56,145,132**	**−4.5**	**5,103**	**1,216,978**	**−.2**	**30,876,280**	**−1.6**
New York	17,311	966,314	−5.6	26,361,927	−4.0	[2] *2,032*	*449,094*	−([3])	*11,983,059*	*−.6*
New Jersey	4,016	336,204	−2.4	8,508,109	−3.2	[4] *775*	*248,829*	*−1.0*	*6,135,200*	*−3.1*
Pennsylvania	7,410	853,642	−2.5	21,275,096	−5.5	*2,296*	*519,055*	[5] *−.2*	*12,758,021*	[5] *−2.1*
East North Central	**20,471**	**2,186,660**	**−5.3**	**57,178,580**	**−8.8**	**7,295**	**1,706,118**	**−3.6**	**45,429,002**	**−8.8**
Ohio	7,510	608,007	−5.0	16,040,807	−6.7	2,449	459,585	−2.5	12,455,972	−6.1
Indiana	*2,149*	*226,330*	*−6.4*	*5,648,936*	*−10.9*	*846*	*190,686*	*−5.7*	*4,795,575*	*−11.5*
Illinois	[6] *6,139*	*608,060*	*−2.1*	*15,635,461*	*−2.0*	*2,345*	*422,950*	*+.3*	*10,904,772*	*+.2*
Michigan	3,691	559,369	−9.2	15,327,076	−17.1	*926*	*481,040*	*−8.4*	*13,510,057*	*−17.7*
Wisconsin	[7] *982*	*184,894*	*−2.0*	*4,526,300*	*−3.5*	[8] *729*	*151,857*	[5] *+1.4*	*3,762,826*	[5] *−.6*
West North Central	**10,511**	**397,557**	**−5.1**	**9,065,064**	**−5.1**	**2,322**	**204,228**	**−2.7**	**4,588,048**	**−5.3**
Minnesota	1,960	76,061	−7.9	1,821,622	−6.3	400	36,678	−5.8	876,105	−7.5
Iowa	1,588	63,088	−1.5	1,436,059	−2.8	396	37,766	+2.0	873,367	−1.9
Missouri	2,904	161,943	−4.7	3,623,667	−5.3	832	90,729	−2.0	1,928,814	−5.1
North Dakota	443	4,368	−6.9	99,692	−4.1	43	683	−1.6	17,785	−5.2
South Dakota	348	7,033	−2.9	172,872	−2.8	38	1,916	−2.3	45,626	−5.2
Nebraska	1,451	31,182	−8.8	705,814	−7.4	162	11,237	−11.1	264,072	−10.3
Kansas	[9] *1,817*	*53,882*	[5] *−4.2*	*1,205,338*	[5] *−4.3*	*451*	*25,319*	*−3.2*	*582,279*	*−5.4*

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 5.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in December 1936 and January 1937 by Geographic Divisions and by States—Continued

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Amount of pay roll (1 week) January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Amount of pay roll (1 week) January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
South Atlantic	**10,812**	**819,450**	**−1.8**	**16,151,716**	**−2.2**	**2,625**	**546,298**	**+(3)**	**10,079,435**	**−0.2**
Delaware	194	15,004	−2.7	359,770	−3.5	84	11,645	−.7	278,023	−2.6
Maryland	*1,456*	*121,656*	*−2.8*	*2,835,168*	*−1.2*	*510*	*82,642*	[5] *+1.2*	*1,915,719*	[5] *+.5*
District of Columbia	1,073	37,453	−12.0	916,606	−8.1	39	3,992	−1.5	132,487	−4.3
Virginia	2,122	105,515	−2.3	2,093,972	−1.6	452	72,112	+.9	1,405,049	+1.4
West Virginia	1,218	148,972	−1.1	3,714,278	−4.2	236	56,315	−1.1	1,453,492	−1.5
North Carolina	1,432	158,925	−1.5	2,527,019	−.9	565	146,542	−.5	2,294,744	−.5
South Carolina	745	73,852	+.2	1,109,560	−1.0	197	66,213	+.6	967,680	−1.0
Georgia	1,460	108,592	−1.2	1,747,560	−.5	354	87,659	+.6	1,326,295	+.6
Florida	1,112	49,481	+3.7	847,783	+.1	188	19,178	−5.2	305,946	−9.0
East South Central	**4,169**	**278,445**	**−1.0**	**5,063,829**	**−4.0**	**917**	**177,132**	**+.3**	**3,104,308**	**−1.7**
Kentucky	1,164	75,870	−1.1	1,522,983	−6.7	223	31,874	−.3	654,232	−2.8
Tennessee	1,252	99,240	−2.1	1,782,457	−3.1	377	75,090	−.6	1,309,819	−2.6
Alabama	1,220	88,440	+.3	1,506,484	−2.6	235	61,912	+1.7	1,011,740	−.2
Mississippi	533	14,895	−1.2	251,905	−1.1	82	8,256	+.3	128,517	+.7
West South Central	**4,355**	**183,985**	**−2.8**	**3,903,024**	**−2.3**	**1,078**	**91,127**	**−.4**	**1,763,746**	**−1.3**
Arkansas	[10] *512*	*24,381*	*−1.5*	*407,972*	*−2.5*	*198*	*17,081*	*−.7*	*264,187*	*−3.0*
Louisiana	994	45,212	−3.0	840,349	−2.2	235	24,376	−1.3	394,395	−1.3
Oklahoma	1,272	37,385	−2.3	863,021	−1.5	133	10,199	+1.8	214,671	−1.5
Texas	[11] *1,577*	*77,007*	*−3.3*	*1,791,682*	*−2.6*	*512*	*39,471*	*−.3*	*890,493*	*−.6*
Mountain	**4,127**	**122,999**	**−6.1**	**3,136,875**	**−5.0**	**543**	**34,447**	**−17.4**	**855,774**	**−17.0**
Montana	663	18,735	−5.5	526,247	−7.1	76	4,455	−16.2	112,298	−19.6
Idaho	441	9,617	−13.3	238,323	−9.9	50	2,473	−29.8	55,818	−28.4
Wyoming	303	7,938	−6.8	233,558	−6.1	38	1,531	−24.8	46,170	−20.3
Colorado	1,183	40,378	−11.2	994,352	−9.8	193	15,824	−18.9	405,496	−17.6
New Mexico	300	6,550	+1.3	156,505	+3.2	23	606	+1.5	11,649	−1.9
Arizona	448	17,422	+.9	437,127	−.4	32	2,387	−12.2	56,817	−13.8
Utah	572	19,171	−1.2	465,354	+4.5	104	6,194	−11.3	139,024	−10.6
Nevada	217	3,188	+8.6	85,409	+3.5	27	977	−2.9	28,502	−3.3
Pacific	**8,182**	**381,564**	**−5.6**	**10,024,572**	**−5.8**	**2,408**	**210,719**	**−4.9**	**5,454,083**	**−7.3**
Washington	2,654	86,624	−5.7	2,152,781	−6.4	552	47,496	−2.9	1,100,594	−7.6
Oregon	1,280	45,939	−5.1	1,081,113	−6.6	289	24,826	−5.7	533,826	−10.5
California	[12] *4,248*	*249,001*	*−5.7*	*6,790,678*	*−5.5*	*1,567*	*138,397*	*−4.0*	*3,819,663*	*−6.7*

[1] Includes banks and trust companies, construction, municipal, agricultural and office employment, amusement and recreation, professional services, and trucking and handling.
[2] Includes laundering and cleaning, water, light, and power.
[3] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[4] Includes laundries.
[5] Weighted percentage change.
[6] Includes automobile, and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[7] Includes construction, but not hotels and restaurants, or public works.
[8] Does not include logging.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[11] Includes business and personal service, and real estate.
[12] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

Industrial and Business Employment and Pay Rolls in Principal Cities

A COMPARISON of January 1937 employment and pay rolls with the December 1936 totals in 13 cities of the United States having a population of 500,000 or over is made in table 6. The changes are computed from reports received from identical establishments in both months.

In addition to reports included in the several industrial groups regularly covered in the survey by the Bureau, reports have also been secured from establishments in other industries for inclusion in these city totals. As information concerning employment in building construction is not available for all cities at this time, figures for this industry have not been included in these city totals.

Table 6.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in December 1936 and January 1937 by Principal Cities

City	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936	Amount of pay roll (1 week) January 1937	Percentage change from December 1936
New York, N. Y.	16,429	679,567	−5.8	$18,224,280	−4.7
Chicago, Ill.	4,350	460,852	−1.6	12,487,316	−1.7
Philadelphia, Pa.	2,371	222,944	−3.7	5,761,046	−2.7
Detroit, Mich.	1,599	380,262	−6.4	11,189,973	−11.2
Los Angeles, Calif.	2,494	146,458	−5.4	3,920,548	−4.1
Cleveland, Ohio	1,700	135,640	−9.1	3,642,462	−9.5
St. Louis, Mo.	1,487	129,351	−3.3	3,111,018	−2.7
Baltimore, Md.	1,216	97,992	−3.1	2,318,547	−3.3
Boston, Mass.[1]	1,592	106,913	−4.9	2,786,280	−3.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1,328	204,195	−3.7	5,594,141	−5.5
San Francisco, Calif.	1,595	79,508	−5.6	2,221,525	−5.2
Buffalo, N. Y.	980	78,920	−4.3	2,185,177	−1.8
Milwaukee, Wis.	593	81,321	−2.0	2,082,466	−4.9

[1] Data relate to "Industrial area."

Public Employment

EMPLOYMENT created by the Federal Government includes employment in the regular agencies of the Government, employment on the various construction programs wholly or partially financed by Federal funds, and employment on relief-work projects.

Construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration are those projects authorized by title II of the National Industrial Recovery Act of June 16, 1933. This program of public works has been extended to June 30, 1937, by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 and title II of the First Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1936.

By authority of Public Resolution No. 11, Seventy-fourth Congress, approved April 8, 1935, the President, in a series of Executive orders, inaugurated a broad program of works to be carried out by 61 units of the Federal Government. The Works Program has been continued by title II of the First Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1936, cited as the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936. Employment created by this program includes employment on Federal projects and employment on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration. Federal projects are those conducted by Federal agencies which have received allotments from The Works Program fund. Projects operated by the Works Progress Administration are those

projects conducted under the supervision of the Works Progress Administration with the cooperation of States, cities, or counties.

The emergency conservation program (Civilian Conservation Corps) created in April 1933 was further extended under authority of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. Since July 1, 1936, emergency conservation work has been continued from appropriations authorized by the First Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1936.

With the following exceptions, statistics on public employment refer to the month ending on the 15th. Employment statistics for the Federal service and for emergency conservation work refer to the number employed on the last day of the month; pay-roll data are for the entire month. The value of material orders placed for projects operated by the Works Progress Administration is a cumulative total from the beginning of the program to the end of the current calendar month and is not available on a monthly basis. Employment and pay-roll statistics on National Youth Administration and Student-Aid projects are for the calendar month. Data on the value of material orders placed on National Youth Administration projects are cumulative through the current calendar month.

Executive Service of the Federal Government

STATISTICS of employment in the executive service of the Federal Government in January 1937, and January and December 1936 are given in table 7.

Table 7.—Employees in the Executive Service of the U. S. Government, January 1937 and January and December 1936 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Item	District of Columbia [2]			Outside District of Columbia			Entire service [2]		
	Permanent	Temporary	Total	Permanent	Temporary [3]	Total	Permanent	Temporary [3]	Total
Number of employees:									
January 1937	107,609	8,650	116,259	615,617	98,307	713,924	723,226	106,957	[4] 830,183
December 1936	107,898	8,457	116,355	618,663	96,468	715,131	726,561	104,925	831,486
January 1936	104,652	7,148	111,800	597,039	92,460	689,499	701,691	99,608	801,299
Percentage change:									
December 1936 to January 1937	−0.27	+2.28	−0.08	−0.49	+1.91	−0.17	−0.46	+1.94	−0.16
January 1936 to January 1937	+2.83	+21.01	+3.99	+3.11	+6.32	+3.54	+3.07	+7.38	+3.60
Labor turn-over January 1937:									
Number of:									
Separations [5]	1,378	1,043	2,421	13,376	16,042	29,418	14,754	17,085	31,839
Accessions [5]	996	1,182	2,178	9,527	18,698	28,225	10,523	19,880	30,403
Turn-over rate per 100:									
Separation rate	1.28	12.19	2.08	2.17	16.47	4.12	2.04	16.13	3.83
Accession rate	.92	13.82	1.87	1.54	19.20	3.95	1.45	18.77	3.66

[1] Data on number of employees refer to employment on last day of month.
[2] Includes employees of Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University.
[3] Not including field employees of Post Office Department or 21,410 employees hired under letters of authorization by the Department of Agriculture, with a pay roll of $1,004,021.
[4] Not including 133 employees transferred but not reported by department to which they were assigned.
[5] Not including employees transferred within the Government service, as such transfers should not be regarded as labor turn-over.

The monthly record of employment in the executive service of the United States Government from January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, is shown in table 8.

Table 8.—Employment in the Executive Service of the United States Government by Months, January 1936 through January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Month	District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia	Total	Month	District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia	Total
1936				*1936*—Continued			
January	111,800	689,499	801,299	September	115,061	721,093	836,154
February	112,708	687,626	800,334	October	114,794	726,507	841,301
March	112,739	693,665	806,404	November	115,185	724,261	839,446
April	115,422	695,345	810,767	December	116,355	715,131	831,486
May	117,229	700,999	818,228	*1937*			
June	117,470	707,156	824,626	January	116,255	713,924	830,183
July	116,261	714,600	830,861				
August	115,807	718,697	834,504				

[1] Data on number of employees refer to employment on last day of month.

Construction Projects Financed by the Public Works Administration

DETAILS concerning employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked during January on construction projects financed by Public Works Administration funds are given in table 9, by type of project.

Table 9.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Projects Financed from Public Works Administration Funds, January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of project	Wage earners		Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	Maximum number employed [2]	Weekly average				
	Federal projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds					
All projects	[3] 37,402	34,274	$3,589,869	4,596,569	$0.781	$2,750,778
Building construction	6,472	5,195	603,838	646,951	.933	842,077
Naval vessels	12,731	12,316	1,495,548	1,826,072	.819	569,413
Public roads [4]	(5)	7,745	375,737	807,070	.466	420,000
Reclamation	1,551	1,394	180,884	236,528	.765	374,770
River, harbor, and flood control	7,498	6,449	843,423	926,129	.911	479,140
Streets and roads	520	402	21,417	45,544	.470	33,388
Water and sewerage	357	287	19,888	41,044	.485	16,757
Miscellaneous	528	486	49,134	67,231	.731	15,233
	Non-Federal projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds					
All projects	33,136	27,194	$2,492,787	2,763,681	$0.902	$7,817,262
Building construction	16,486	13,284	1,209,149	1,239,763	.975	5,381,982
Streets and roads	1,877	1,454	124,516	133,632	.932	167,358
Water and sewerage	11,719	9,786	980,424	1,058,786	.926	1,815,661
Miscellaneous	3,054	2,670	178,698	331,500	.539	452,261

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 9.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Projects Financed from Public Works Administration Funds, January 1937—Continued

Type of project	Wage earners		Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	Maximum number employed	Weekly average				
	Non-Federal "transportation loan" projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds					
All projects	484	(5)	$10,662	17,593	$0.606	(5)
Railroad construction	94	78	1,572	2,543	.618	
Railroad-operated car and locomotive shops	390	(5)	9,090	15,050	.604	(5)
	Projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds [7] [8]					
All projects	131,153	107,999	$9,346,663	11,390,833	$0.821	$16,361,268
Building construction [9]	87,480	72,301	6,492,282	7,392,685	.878	11,021,322
Electrification	598	424	32,453	43,308	.749	43,405
Heavy engineering	2,330	1,946	197,197	232,107	.850	619,154
Reclamation	3,056	2,837	264,173	370,818	.712	286,870
River, harbor, and flood control	680	517	46,064	68,936	.668	54,259
Streets and roads	11,262	8,412	451,758	877,321	.515	1,271,151
Water and sewerage	25,235	21,182	1,829,371	2,365,395	.773	2,965,239
Miscellaneous	512	380	33,365	40,263	.829	99,868

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th.
[2] Maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month by each contractor and Government agency doing force-account work.
[3] Includes weekly average for public roads.
[4] Estimated by the Bureau of Public Roads.
[5] Not available; average included in total.
[6] Data not available.
[7] These data, excluding figures for projects financed from First Deficiency Appropriation 1936 funds, are also included in separate tables covering projects financed by The Works Program.
[8] Includes a maximum of 2,448 and an average of 2,191 employees working on projects financed from First Deficiency Appropriation 1936 funds, who were paid $61,072 for 88,877 man-hours of labor. Material orders in the amount of $622,339 were placed for these projects.
[9] Includes a maximum of 15,068 and an average of 13,269 employees working on low-cost housing projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 funds, who were paid $1,422,625 for 1,592,207 man-hours of labor. Material orders in the amount of $1,814,653 were placed for these projects. These data are also included in separate tables covering projects financed from The Works Program.

Federal construction projects are financed by allotments made by the Public Works Administration to the various agencies and departments of the Federal Government from funds provided under the National Industrial Recovery Act. The major portion of the low-cost housing program now under way, however, is financed by funds provided under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. The work is performed either by commercial firms which have been awarded contracts or by day labor hired directly by the Federal agencies.

Non-Federal projects are financed by allotments made by the Public Works Administration from funds available under either the National Industrial Recovery Act, the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, or the First Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1936. Most of the allotments have been made to the States and their political subdivisions, but occasionally allotments have been made to commercial firms. In financing projects for the States or their political subdivisions from funds appropriated under the National Industrial Recovery Act, the Public Works Administration makes a direct grant of not more than 30 percent of the total labor and material cost. When funds provided under the Emergency Relief Appropria-

tion Act of 1935, or the First Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1936 are used to finance a non-Federal project, as much as 45 percent of the total cost may be furnished in the form of a grant. The remaining 55 percent or more of the cost is financed by the recipient. When circumstances justify such action, the Public Works Administration may provide the grantee with the additional funds by means of a loan. Allotments to commercial enterprises are made only as loans. All loans made by the Public Works Administration carry interest charges and have a definite date of maturity. Collateral posted with the Public Works Administration to secure loans may be offered for sale to the public. In this way a revolving fund is provided which enlarges the scope of the activities of the Public Works Administration.

Commercial loans have been made, for the most part, to railroads. Railroad work financed by loans made by the Public Works Administration falls under three headings: First, construction work in the form of electrification, the laying of rails and ties, repairs to buildings, bridges, etc.; second, the building and repairing of locomotives and passenger and freight cars in shops operated by the railroads; and third, locomotive and passenger- and freight-car building in commercial shops.

Monthly Trend

A summary of employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on projects financed from Public Works Administration funds from July 1933 to January 1937 is given in table 10.

Table 10.—Employment and Pay Rolls, July 1933 to January 1937, Inclusive, on Projects Financed From Public Works Administration Funds [1]

[Subject to revision]

Year and month	Maximum number of wage earners [2]	Monthly pay roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
July 1933 to January 1937, inclusive [3] [4]	----------	$869,959,902	1,312,785,806	$0.663	$1,553,000,160
July to December 1933, inclusive [4]	----------	33,244,066	62,209,479	.534	75,524,702
January to December 1934, inclusive	----------	308,311,143	523,561,666	.589	[5] 610,051,090
January to December 1935, inclusive [3]	----------	270,195,762	391,579,803	.690	[5] 439,152,426
1936 [3]					
January	197,820	14,399,381	19,195,535	.750	22,796,818
February	176,764	12,220,479	16,404,771	.745	23,460,743
March	202,236	13,981,176	18,519,649	.755	29,068,402
April	264,427	18,915,663	25,203,010	.751	32,459,393
May	315,393	22,590,878	30,377,869	.744	[5] 39,778,571
June	349,572	25,840,926	34,418,037	.751	37,803,419
July	336,047	24,841,359	32,749,131	.759	40,589,226
August	330,784	24,676,121	32,235,040	.766	38,088,931
September	311,361	23,582,444	30,254,704	.779	38,152,624
October	284,903	22,290,424	28,140,040	.792	34,144,905
November	269,167	20,854,480	26,054,166	.800	[4] 34,246,615
December	242,818	18,575,619	23,114,230	.804	30,752,987
1937					
January [3]	202,175	15,439,981	18,768,676	.823	26,929,308

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th.
[2] Maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month by each contractor and Government agency doing force-account work. Includes weekly average for public-road projects.
[3] Includes employees working on projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds. These data are also included in separate tables covering projects financed by The Works Program.
[4] Revised.
[5] Includes orders placed by railroads for new equipment.

The Works Program

A DETAILED record of employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on projects financed by The Works Program in January is shown in table 11, by type of project.

Table 11.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Projects Financed by The Works Program, January, 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of project	Wage earners: Maximum number employed [2]	Wage earners: Weekly average	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	Federal projects					
All projects	328,867	294,062	$15,652,964	32,064,351	$0.488	$7,595,246
Building construction	44,821	41,049	2,640,201	4,270,673	.618	1,119,775
Electrification	3,781	3,574	124,157	282,328	.440	739,796
Forestry	38,974	35,539	1,265,628	3,211,088	.394	324,066
Grade-crossing elimination	26,109	20,265	1,368,773	2,289,339	.598	1,774,734
Heavy engineering	132	128	9,463	10,515	.900	772
Hydroelectric power plants [3]	1,627	1,627	21,957	87,922	.250	0
Plant, crop, and livestock conservation	33,662	30,152	1,227,560	4,137,222	.297	22,175
Professional, technical, and clerical	15,061	14,962	1,363,432	2,067,875	.659	94,820
Public roads	41,704	32,447	1,803,172	3,699,633	.487	982,950
Reclamation	77,215	72,909	3,577,303	7,959,673	.449	1,322,218
River, harbor, and flood control	17,713	15,927	1,302,858	1,872,858	.696	917,219
Streets and roads	12,346	11,429	312,885	989,248	.316	39,238
Water and sewerage	2,137	1,919	49,933	134,930	.370	21,924
Miscellaneous	13,585	12,135	585,642	1,051,047	.557	235,559
	P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds [4]					
All projects	128,705	105,808	$9,285,591	11,301,956	$0.822	$15,738,929
Building construction	85,713	70,743	6,447,194	7,330,288	.880	10,542,001
Electrification	598	424	32,453	43,308	.749	43,405
Heavy engineering	2,322	1,938	197,027	231,885	.850	619,094
Reclamation	3,047	2,828	264,065	370,740	.712	283,682
River, harbor, and flood control	680	517	46,064	68,936	.668	54,259
Streets and roads	11,152	8,315	449,609	874,514	.514	1,252,553
Water and sewerage	24,681	20,663	1,815,814	2,342,022	.775	2,844,067
Miscellaneous	512	380	33,365	40,263	.829	99,868
	Projects operated by Works Progress Administration					
All projects	2,132,861	----------	$118,612,830	231,218,557	$0.513	[5]
Conservation	107,372	----------	5,211,841	11,129,039	.468	----------
Highway, road, and street	753,403	----------	36,696,212	80,266,887	.457	----------
Housing	5,328	----------	368,275	582,902	.632	----------
Professional, technical, and clerical	233,666	----------	18,016,009	26,665,836	.676	----------
Public building	191,795	----------	12,734,450	19,976,016	.637	----------
Publicly owned or operated utilities	203,661	----------	10,794,329	20,744,367	.520	----------
Recreational facilities [6]	197,021	----------	12,629,658	21,227,991	.595	----------
Sanitation and health	62,174	----------	2,933,683	6,719,185	.437	----------
Sewing, canning, gardening, etc.	264,975	----------	12,613,784	30,986,758	.407	----------
Transportation	46,994	----------	2,729,315	5,084,843	.537	----------
Not elsewhere classified	66,472	----------	3,885,274	7,834,733	.496	----------

[1] Unless otherwise noted data are for the month ending on the 15th.
[2] Maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month by each contractor and Government agency doing force-account work.
[3] These data are for projects under construction in Puerto Rico.
[4] Includes data for 113,637 employees working on non-Federal projects and 15,068 employees working on low-cost-housing projects. These data are included in tables covering projects under the jurisdiction of P. W. A.
[5] Data on a monthly basis are not available.
[6] Exclusive of buildings.

Statistics on employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on National Youth Administration and Student-Aid projects under the jurisdiction of the Works Progress Administration in January are shown in table 12, by type of project.

Table 12.—Employment and Pay Rolls on National Youth Administration and Student-Aid Projects Financed by The Works Program, January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of program	Number of persons employed	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
Total	573,760	$5,889,254	17,761,511	$0.332	
Work projects	184,686	3,084,561	8,212,091	.376	(2)
Student-Aid	389,074	2,804,693	9,549,420	.294	(3)

[1] These data are for the month ending Jan. 31, 1937.
[2] Data are not available on a monthly basis.
[3] No expenditures for materials on projects of this type.

Monthly Trend

Employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on projects financed by The Works Program from the beginning of the program in July 1935 to January 1937 are given in table 13.

Table 13.—Employment and Pay Rolls, July 1935 to January 1937, Inclusive, on Projects Financed by The Works Program [1]

[Subject to revision]

Month and year	Maximum number employed [2]	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	Federal projects				
July 1935 to January 1937, inclusive		$277,661,770	608,874,531	$0.456	$184,298,595
July to December 1935		36,951,974	80,745,958	.458	34,763,337
1936					
January	248,929	11,179,541	25,955,820	.431	8,988,622
February	298,589	12,529,207	29,173,914	.429	9,684,578
March	325,505	14,431,789	35,243,886	.409	8,028,299
April	375,865	16,563,885	38,563,300	.430	12,903,903
May	401,298	19,160,510	43,267,437	.443	12,668,052
June	453,012	22,657,507	50,680,511	.447	14,431,802
July	451,570	22,699,760	48,849,680	.465	16,198,583
August	451,960	22,794,588	48,559,862	.469	13,191,899
September	439,897	22,585,121	47,786,683	.473	13,095,741
October	437,839	21,785,609	47,141,554	.462	12,270,703
November	404,671	20,074,062	42,946,903	.467	10,511,624
December	370,911	18,595,253	37,894,672	.491	9,966,206
1937					
January	328,867	15,652,964	32,064,351	.488	7,595,246

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 13.—Employment and Pay Rolls, July 1935 to January 1937, Inclusive, on Projects Financed by The Works Program—Continued

[Subject to revision]

Month and year	Maximum number employed	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds [1]				
September 1935 to January 1937, inclusive	----------	$107,317,327	143,400,319	$0.748	$214,882,697
September to December 1935	----------	883,741	1,326,721	.666	2,061,700
1936					
January	23,740	1,128,635	1,621,349	.696	3,632,378
February	39,848	1,794,866	2,609,270	.688	8,611,717
March	64,223	3,032,280	4,525,546	.670	10,548,343
April	112,345	6,346,433	9,211,679	.689	14,725,726
May	149,334	9,101,702	13,011,674	.700	20,112,332
June	176,184	11,435,825	15,843,765	.722	20,454,214
July	188,076	12,277,476	16,574,227	.741	23,404,501
August	191,433	12,892,537	17,159,189	.751	24,067,345
September	184,518	12,794,471	16,597,561	.771	23,150,164
October	171,203	12,356,655	15,818,125	.781	21,396,051
November	166,178	12,135,818	15,228,131	.797	22,842,952
December	154,696	11,136,888	13,873,082	.803	19,875,274
1937					
January	128,705	9,285,591	11,301,956	.822	15,738,929
	Projects operated by Works Progress Administration [4]				
August 1935 to January 1937, inclusive	----------	$1,871,547,980	4,044,389,852	$0.463	[5] $575,656,633
August to December 1935	----------	170,911,331	367,589,041	.465	----------
1936					
January	2,812,391	128,383,000	314,664,210	.408	----------
February	2,950,481	137,182,000	332,966,010	.412	----------
March	3,095,261	144,471,000	341,539,000	.423	----------
April [6]	2,906,175	145,678,964	337,087,332	.432	----------
May [6]	2,605,311	133,455,403	300,378,367	.444	----------
June [6]	2,418,076	126,795,165	278,357,787	.456	----------
July [6]	2,234,878	119,824,954	258,028,282	.464	----------
August [6]	2,282,654	122,186,484	241,081,167	.507	----------
September [6]	2,406,460	124,888,620	247,534,479	.505	----------
October [6]	2,472,774	130,171,087	257,599,453	.505	----------
November [6]	2,564,115	135,777,320	271,123,929	.501	----------
December [6]	2,426,002	133,209,822	265,222,238	.502	----------
1937					
January	2,132,861	118,612,830	231,218,557	.513	----------

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th with exceptions noted in the preceding table.
[2] Maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month by each contractor and Government agency doing force-account work.
[3] These data are included in tables covering projects under the jurisdiction of the Public Works Administration. The data for January include 113,637 employees working on non-Federal projects and 15,068 employees working on low-cost-housing projects.
[4] These data exclude National Youth Administration and Student-Aid projects which appear in a separate table.
[5] Data on a monthly basis are not available.
[6] Revised.

Table 14 shows the employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on National Youth Administration projects from January 1936 to January 1937, Similar data for Student-Aid projects are shown from September 1935 to January 1937.

Table **14.—Employment and Pay Rolls From Beginning of Program Through January 1937, Inclusive, on National Youth Administration and Student-Aid Projects [1] Financed by The Works Program**

[Subject to revision]

Month and year	Number of persons employed	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed
Work projects					
January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive	----------	$31,906,757	83,872,005	$0.380	[2] $962,643
1936					
January	16,354	176,558	399,989	.441	----------
February	78,333	1,044,696	2,606,468	.401	----------
March	167,037	2,142,490	5,514,246	.389	----------
April	181,279	2,903,174	7,642,897	.380	----------
May	177,846	2,866,235	7,540,944	.380	----------
June	184,256	3,070,495	8,169,524	.376	----------
July	164,792	2,574,164	6,542,187	.393	----------
August	161,571	2,582,457	6,535,808	.395	----------
September	166,664	2,728,676	7,278,294	.375	----------
October	165,298	2,781,832	7,486,607	.372	----------
November	170,950	2,929,988	7,830,301	.374	----------
December	173,672	3,021,431	8,112,649	.372	----------
1937					
January	184,686	3,084,561	8,212,091	.376	----------
Student-Aid					
September 1935 to January 1937, inclusive	----------	$34,808,796	113,818,778	$0.306	[4]
1935					
September	34,924	221,210	679,528	.326	----------
October	183,594	1,652,834	5,009,298	.330	----------
November	234,450	2,094,889	6,388,068	.328	----------
December	282,829	2,394,570	7,536,082	.318	----------
1936					
January	306,490	2,415,828	7,673,509	.315	----------
February	351,302	2,793,122	8,999,990	.310	----------
March	380,099	2,985,705	9,793,025	.305	----------
April	404,749	3,190,427	10,426,672	.306	----------
May	398,362	3,553,924	11,643,358	.305	----------
June	212,938	1,818,778	5,358,106	.339	----------
July	3,334	12,477	56,391	.221	----------
August	1,707	7,076	37,824	.187	----------
September	59,796	326,676	1,327,516	.246	----------
October [3]	330,768	2,453,458	8,427,611	.291	----------
November [3]	390,900	3,066,354	10,500,807	.292	----------
December [3]	395,485	3,016,775	10,411,573	.290	----------
1937					
January	389,074	2,804,693	9,549,420	.294	----------

[1] These data are presented on a calendar-month basis.
[2] These data are not available on a monthly basis.
[3] Includes data for Hawaii.
[4] No expenditures for materials on projects of this type.

Emergency Conservation Work

STATISTICS concerning employment and pay rolls in emergency conservation work in December 1936 and January 1937 are presented in table 15. Emergency conservation work is usually regarded as a part of The Works Program, although it is now financed by a separate appropriation.

Table 15.—Employment and Pay Rolls in Emergency Conservation Work January 1937 and December 1936 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Group	Number of employees		Amount of pay rolls	
	January 1937	December 1936	January 1937	December 1936
All groups	407,484	[2] 374,774	$18,629,058	[2] $17,738,964
Enrolled personnel [3]	359,863	327,056	11,188,936	10,183,844
Reserve officers	8,090	8,079	2,008,964	2,055,177
Educational advisers [4]	2,130	[2] 2,130	359,235	[2] 356,516
Supervisory and technical [5]	[6] 37,401	[2] [7] 37,509	[6] 5,071,923	[2] [7] 5,143,427

[1] Data on number of employees refer to employment on last day of month. Amounts of pay rolls are for entire month.
[2] Revised.
[3] January data include 3,496 enrollees and pay roll of $59,719 outside continental United States; December 2,976 enrollees and pay roll of $62,828.
[4] Included in executive service, tables 7 and 8.
[5] Includes carpenters, electricians, and laborers.
[6] 36,265 employees and pay roll of $4,952,085 also included in executive service, tables 7 and 8.
[7] 35,812 employees and pay roll of $4,962,118 also included in executive service, tables 7 and 8.

Employment and pay-roll data for emergency conservation workers are collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from the War Department, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Commerce, the Treasury Department, and the Department of the Interior. The monthly pay of the enrolled personnel is distributed as follows: 5.0 percent are paid $45; 8.0 percent, $36; and the remaining 87.0 percent, $30. The enrolled men, in addition to their pay, are provided with board, clothing, and medical services.

Monthly statistics of employment and pay rolls on the emergency conservation program from January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, are given in table 16.

Table 16.—Monthly Totals of Employees and Pay Rolls in Emergency Conservation Work, January 1936 through January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Month	Number of employees	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Month	Number of employees	Monthly pay-roll disbursements
1936			*1936*—Continued		
January	478,751	$21,429,044	August	383,554	$17,840,653
February	454,231	20,484,493	September	320,821	16,367,897
March	356,273	17,249,609	October	404,826	17,662,545
April	391,002	18,063,534	November	391,296	18,604,821
			December [2]	374,774	17,738,964
May	407,621	18,598,026			
June	383,279	17,973,962	*1937*		
July	404,422	18,417,372	January	407,484	18,629,058

[1] Data on number of employees refer to employment on last day of month. Amounts of pay rolls are for entire month.
[2] Revised.

Construction Projects Financed by Reconstruction Finance Corporation

STATISTICS of employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in January are presented in table 17, by type of project.

Table 17.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Projects Financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, by Type of Project, January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of project	Number of wage earners	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
All projects	8,232	$968,077	1,300,989	$0.744	$2,329,944
Bridges	75	8,282	8,249	1.004	84
Building construction [2]	865	69,360	131,478	.528	550,978
Reclamation	26	2,603	4,473	.582	2,103
Water and sewerage	6,958	852,664	1,106,551	.771	1,771,578
Miscellaneous	308	35,168	50,238	.700	5,201

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th.
[2] Includes 32 employees; pay-roll disbursements of $1,314; 1,171 man-hours worked; and material orders placed during the month amounting to $8,088 on projects financed by RFC Mortgage Co.

A monthly summary of employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation from January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, is given in table 18.

Table 18.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Projects Financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation January 1936 through January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Month	Number of wage earners	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
1936					
January	7,560	$850,271	1,093,350	$0.778	$1,355,520
February	7,961	905,455	1,179,431	.768	1,436,119
March	8,134	916,059	1,193,145	.768	1,385,640
April	10,021	1,133,880	1,479,182	.767	1,292,063
May	10,988	962,280	1,244,097	.773	1,441,248
June	8,501	941,680	1,252,193	.752	2,527,262
July	9,843	1,063,728	1,436,201	.741	2,050,370
August	9,658	1,065,744	1,441,791	.739	1,314,692
September	10,290	1,085,642	1,510,109	.719	1,420,444
October	8,864	1,002,648	1,347,317	.744	1,298,643
November	9,611	1,108,258	1,502,460	.738	3,008,077
December	9,189	1,106,816	1,514,355	.731	1,433,075
1937					
January	8,232	968,077	1,300,989	.744	2,329,944

[1] Data are for month ending on the 15th. Includes projects financed by RFC Mortgage Co.

Construction Projects Financed from Regular Governmental Appropriations

WHENEVER a construction contract is awarded or force-account work is started by a department or agency of the Federal Government, the Bureau of Labor Statistics is immediately notified, on forms supplied by the Bureau, of the name and address of the contractor, the amount of the contract, and the type of work to be performed. Blanks are then mailed by the Bureau to the contractor or Govern-

ment agency doing the work. These reports are returned to the Bureau and show the number of men on pay rolls, the amounts disbursed for pay, the number of man-hours worked on the project, and the value of the different types of materials for which orders were placed, during the month.

The following tables present data concerning construction projects for which contracts have been awarded since July 1, 1934. The Bureau does not have statistics covering projects financed from regular governmental appropriations for which contracts were awarded previous to that date.

Data concerning employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on construction projects financed from regular governmental appropriations during January are given in table 19, by type of project.

Table 19.—Employment on Construction Projects Financed from Regular Governmental Appropriations, by Type of Project, January 1937 [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of project	Number of wage earners		Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
	Maximum number employed [2]	Weekly average				
All projects	[3] 119,853	111,725	$11,857,007	16,506,278	$0.718	$11,729,532
Building construction	25,719	22,343	2,143,310	2,769,407	.774	2,778,621
Electrification	285	233	16,584	26,060	.636	153,068
Forestry	28	21	2,057	3,554	.579	1,941
Naval vessels	34,763	34,188	4,604,969	5,293,738	.870	3,759,598
Public roads [4]	([5])	24,229	1,975,762	3,442,171	.574	2,208,512
Reclamation	735	719	118,438	155,328	.763	565
River, harbor, and flood control	29,072	25,392	2,719,512	4,344,744	.628	2,392,379
Streets and roads	2,432	2,192	110,878	234,333	.473	116,724
Water and sewerage	58	48	4,087	6,175	.662	6,080
Miscellaneous	2,532	2,360	161,410	230,768	.699	312,044

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th.
[2] Maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month by each contractor and Government agency doing force-account work.
[3] Includes weekly average for public roads.
[4] Estimated by the Bureau of Public Roads.
[5] Not available; average number included in total.

Employment, pay rolls, and man-hours worked on construction projects financed from regular governmental appropriations from January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, are shown, by months, in table 20.

Table **20.—Employment on Construction Projects Financed From Regular Governmental Appropriations, January 1936 Through January 1937**[1]

[Subject to revision]

Month	Number of wage earners	Monthly pay-roll disbursements	Number of man-hours worked during month	Average earnings per hour	Value of material orders placed during month
1936					
January	46,895	$3,990,725	6,246,418	$0.639	$5,584,611
February	43,915	3,619,025	5,545,115	.653	6,669,016
March	47,538	3,674,896	5,814,569	.632	7,185,019
April	60,107	5,205,353	8,375,190	.622	9,861,378
May	79,789	6,242,763	10,262,637	.608	12,559,367
June	102,376	8,631,104	13,692,884	.630	12,347,453
July	137,475	13,552,299	20,552,261	.659	25,670,217
August	158,939	14,663,201	22,023,669	.666	18,787,905
September	167,745	15,272,860	23,044,847	.663	21,301,074
October	168,657	16,370,857	24,708,818	.663	19,998,984
November	155,839	14,307,158	21,061,396	.679	16,844,360
December	144,274	13,491,223	19,164,694	.704	16,009,255
1937					
January	119,853	11,857,007	16,506,278	.718	11,729,532

[1] Data are for the month ending on the 15th.

State-Roads Projects

A RECORD of employment and pay-roll disbursements in the construction and maintenance of State roads from January 1936 to January 1937, inclusive, is presented in table 21.

Table **21.—Employment on Construction and Maintenance of State Roads, January 1936 Through January 1937** [1]

[Subject to revision]

Month	Number of employees working on—			Total pay roll
	New roads	Maintenance	Total	
1936				
January	14,358	105,795	120,153	$7,481,502
February	10,256	119,777	130,033	7,572,614
March	8,150	133,386	141,536	7,689,770
April	11,339	143,305	154,644	8,918,024
May	16,566	164,356	180,922	10,560,866
June	20,773	165,363	186,136	11,488,253
July	21,744	164,956	186,700	11,839,215
August	26,810	158,882	185,692	11,937,585
September	34,459	151,772	186,231	11,806,481
October	34,136	149,717	183,853	11,566,892
November	27,988	153,688	181,676	11,330,509
December	21,394	138,540	159,934	10,000,371
1937				
January	15,622	117,576	133,198	8,387,864

[1] Excluding employment furnished by projects financed from Public Works Administration funds and Works Progress Administration funds. Data are for the month ending on the 15th.

BUILDING OPERATIONS

Summary of Building Construction in Principal Cities, February 1937[1]

BUILDING activity, as measured by the value of permits issued, showed a decided increase in February. Compared with January 1937 permit valuations in February were 32.5 percent greater. Increases occurred in all classes of construction. The largest percentage increase, a gain of 48.3 percent, occurred on new residential construction. An increase of 30.7 percent was registered in the value of additions, alterations, and repairs and of 13.5 percent in new nonresidential construction.

A comparison of permit values for February 1937 and February 1936 showed a gain in residential construction. Measured by the value of permits issued, new residential building increased 94.4 percent; additions, alterations, and repairs, 71.8 percent; and new nonresidential construction, 24.5 percent. The gain in the total value of all building construction over the corresponding month of last year was 63.1 percent.

Comparisons of February 1937 with January 1937 and February 1936

A SUMMARY of building construction in 1,524 identical cities in February 1936 and January and February 1937 is given in table 1.

Table 1.—Summary of Building Construction in 1,524 Identical Cities

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	Number, February 1937	Percentage change from—		February 1937	Percentage change from—	
		January 1937	February 1936		January 1937	February 1936
All construction	36,349	+12.4	+49.6	$128,696,530	+32.5	+63.1
New residential	8,730	+15.0	+78.4	62,250,278	+48.3	+94.4
New nonresidential	5,975	+7.7	+71.1	37,208,392	+13.5	+24.5
Additions, alterations, and repairs	21,644	+12.7	+36.0	29,237,860	+30.7	+71.8

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, February 1927", copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and of the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,524 identical cities, having a population of 2,500 and over, is shown in table 2 for the months of February 1936 and January and February 1937.

Table 2.—Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,524 Identical Cities

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	February 1937	Percentage change from—		February 1937	Percentage change from—	
		January 1937	February 1936		January 1937	February 1936
All types	$61,440,893	+47.4	+95.1	15,730	+48.2	+114.5
1 family	35,693,858	+13.8	+56.4	7,989	+13.3	+72.6
2 family [1]	2,459,118	+30.1	+227.9	888	+20.0	+183.7
Multifamily [2]	23,287,917	+175.9	+194.2	6,953	+138.9	+183.9

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, January and February 1937

THE estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in the 1,524 identical cities reporting for the months of January and February 1937, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by population groups, is given in table 3.

Table 3.—Estimated Cost of Building Construction and Number of Families Provided for in New Dwellings in 1,524 Identical Cities, by Size of City, January and February 1937

Population group	Total building construction			Number of families provided for in—							
	February 1937	January 1937	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
				February 1937	January 1937	February 1937	January 1937	February 1937	January 1937	February 1937	January 1937
Total, all groups	$128,696,530	$97,121,698	+32.5	15,730	10,616	7,889	6,966	888	740	6,953	2,910
500,000 and over	64,136,914	38,565,418	+66.3	8,538	4,542	2,136	2,033	189	200	6,213	2,309
100,000 and under 500,000	21,668,408	18,955,685	+14.3	2,446	1,799	1,864	1,371	266	197	316	231
50,000 and under 100,000	9,926,920	8,976,758	+10.6	965	873	735	651	125	120	105	102
25,000 and under 50,000	9,478,415	10,186,700	−7.0	906	907	750	736	85	98	71	73
10,000 and under 25,000	12,149,906	11,096,983	+9.5	1,601	1,358	1,329	1,184	122	66	150	108
5,000 and under 10,000	5,904,179	6,046,846	−2.4	794	700	654	615	56	33	84	52
2,500 and under 5,000	5,431,788	3,293,308	+64.9	480	437	421	376	45	26	14	35

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First Two Months, 1936 and 1937

CUMULATIVE totals for the first 2 months of 1937 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 4. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

Table 4.—Estimated Cost of Building Construction in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 2 Months of 1936 and 1937, by Class of Construction

Class of construction	Estimated cost of building construction		
	First 2 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936	
All construction	$227,769,325	$166,859,353	+36.5
New residential	103,801,270	65,694,373	+58.0
New nonresidential	72,913,147	64,004,676	+13.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs	51,054,908	37,160,304	+37.4

Table 5 presents the number of family-dwelling units provided and the estimated cost of dwellings in cities with a population of 2,500 and over for the first 2 months of 1936 and 1937.

Table 5.—Estimated Cost and Number of Family-Dwelling Units Provided in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 2 Months of 1936 and of 1937, by Type of Dwelling

Type of dwelling	Housekeeping dwellings					
	Estimated cost			Number of families provided for		
	First 2 months of—		Percentage change	First 2 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936		1937	1936	
All types	$102,718,685	$64,578,478	+59.1	26,345	15,176	+73.6
1-family	66,717,104	40,765,189	+63.7	14,891	8,974	+65.9
2-family [1]	4,347,329	1,870,553	+132.4	1,631	740	+120.4
Multifamily [2]	31,654,252	21,942,736	+44.3	9,823	5,462	+79.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued during February 1936 and during January and February 1937 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,524 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within

the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts awarded for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from the various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. The information concerning public building is then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In February 1936 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,524 cities amounted to $13,200,000; in January 1937, to $3,351,000; and in February 1937 to $14,790,000.

Construction From Public Funds

THE value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during January and February 1937 on various types of construction projects financed from the Public Works Administration fund, by The Works Program, and from regular governmental appropriations, is shown in table 6.

Table 6.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed From Federal Funds, January and February 1937 [1]

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started	
	February 1937	January 1937 [2]
Total	[3] $74,542,131	[4] $93,033,295
Public Works Administration:		
Federal	1,740,836	2,221,587
Non-Federal:		
N. I. R. A.	1,304,349	4,156,681
E. R. A. A.	[3] 4,128,889	[4] 14,574,348
F. D. A.	15,825,934	31,502,878
The Works Program [5]	2,117,015	13,809,692
Regular governmental appropriations	49,425,108	26,768,109

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.
[3] Includes $5,750 low-cost housing projects (housing division, P. W. A.).
[4] Includes $73,447 low-cost housing projects (housing division, P. W. A.).
[5] Includes data for that part of The Works Program administered by Federal agencies.

The value of public-building and highway-construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for February 1936 and January and February 1937 is shown in table 7.

Table 7.—Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	February 1937	January 1937	February 1936
Public buildings	$2,639,841	$1,177,020	$1,685,899
Highway construction	2,033,570	5,327,283	3,308,375

RETAIL PRICES

Food Prices in February 1937

THE composite index of retail food costs showed a net decrease of 0.1 percent for the 5 weeks ended February 16. Decreases in the cost of meats, dairy products, and eggs offset advances for other commodity groups.

The index for February 16 was 84.5 percent of the 1923–25 average. This is 4.9 percent above the level for February of last year. Higher costs for fruits and vegetables was the major factor in this increase.

Compared with food costs for each February during the past 10 years, the current index for "All foods" is 18.3 percent below the high of 103.4 in 1930, and 40.6 percent above the low of 60.1 in 1933. With a single exception, moreover, the indexes for each of the commodity groups for February 1937 were likewise higher in 1930 and lower in 1933. The one exception is the beverages group, which is lower now than in 1933, reflecting the declines in coffee prices.

Details by Commodity Groups

CEREALS and bakery products increased 0.2 percent between the middle of January and the middle of February 1937. The price of flour increased 0.6 percent and rolled oats advanced 0.9 percent. Price changes for other cereals were negligible. The price of white bread remained unchanged. The price of whole-wheat bread was 0.5 percent higher and rye bread increased 0.7 percent.

Meat costs declined an average of 1.4 percent during the month interval. This decline amounted to 1.5 percent for the beef items, 1.9 percent for pork, and 1.3 percent for lamb. The cost of roasting chickens increased 1.3 percent. Price declines of 1.0 percent or more were reported for 10 of the 21 items in the group. The downward price change included all of the beef and lamb items. The greatest relative declines were 4.3 percent for pork chops and 5.7 percent for pork loin roast.

Dairy products decreased 0.5 percent. The price of butter declined 1.0 percent and was lower in 32 of the 51 cities. The average price of fresh milk was unchanged. There was a decrease of one-tenth of a cent per quart in three cities and a like increase in three other cities. In Savannah there was an advance of nine-tenths of a cent a quart. The prices of both evaporated milk and cheese were slightly lower.

The seasonal decline in egg costs amounted to 14.8 percent. Prices were lower in all of the 51 cities. The average price was 7.9 percent lower than a year ago.

The cost of fruits and vegetables advanced 5.2 percent. This advance, although country wide, was greatest in the far West. Prices were higher for 23 of the 29 items in the group. The increase for lemons was 22.9 percent; for oranges, 21.5 percent. Of the nine fresh vegetables priced, increases were most marked for green beans, lettuce, onions, and sweetpotatoes. The advance for white potatoes was 3.6 percent. There was an increase of 2.1 percent for canned pork and beans. The price of dried navy beans advanced 8.2 percent to a 6-year high. Price changes for the other canned and dried items were relatively unimportant.

An advance of 0.5 percent for beverages and chocolate was due to slightly higher prices for coffee and to an increase of 2.0 percent for chocolate and 2.2 percent for cocoa. The price upturn for cocoa and chocolate reversed a steady downward trend which began in the summer of 1936.

Fats and oils increased 0.6 percent. Prices advanced for all items in the group except lard. The price increases, ranging from 0.2 percent for mayonnaise to 1.9 percent for oleomargarine, more than offset the decrease of 0.8 percent for lard. The price of lard was 4.8 percent higher than in February a year ago.

Sugar and sweets showed an increase of 1.2 percent, the result of a rise of 1.3 percent in the price of sugar and smaller increases for corn sirup and strawberry preserves.

Table 1 presents indexes of retail food costs by major commodity groups for February and January 1937, together with corresponding indexes for February 1936, 1933, and 1929. The chart on page 1046 shows the relative changes in the retail costs of all foods and of each of the commodity groups from January 1929 to February 1937, inclusive.

Table 1.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,[1] by Commodity Groups

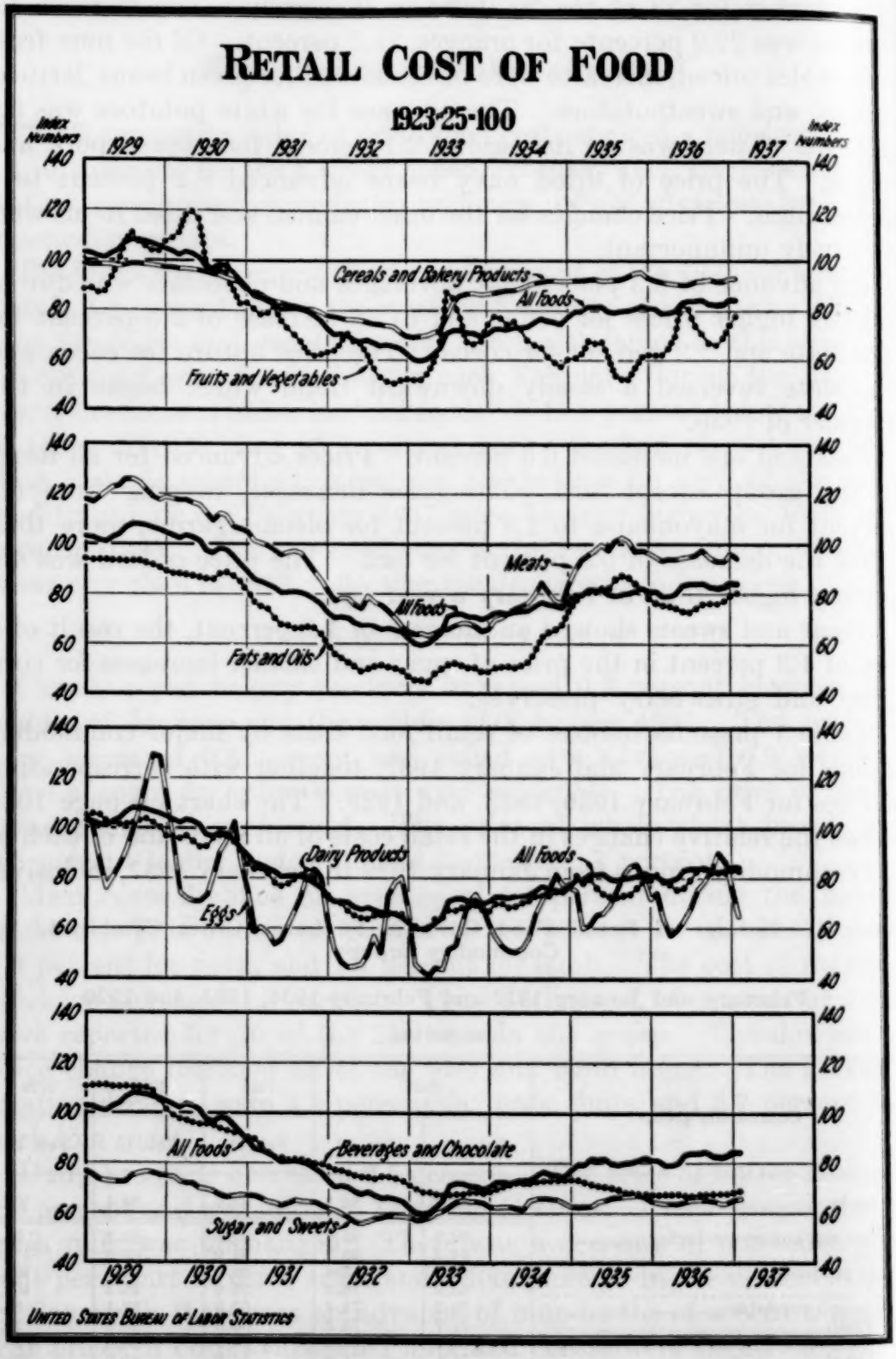
February and January 1937 and February 1936, 1933, and 1929

[1923-25=100]

Commodity group	1937		1936	1933	1929
	Feb. 16	Jan. 12	Feb. 11	Feb. 15	Feb. 15
All foods	84.5	84.6	80.6	60.1	102.3
Cereals and bakery products	92.7	92.4	92.5	69.2	98.2
Meats	94.3	95.7	94.9	63.9	116.7
Dairy products	83.0	83.4	80.5	60.7	105.7
Eggs	65.0	76.3	70.6	45.3	101.0
Fruits and vegetables	78.3	74.4	62.0	52.1	88.7
Fresh	77.7	73.5	60.8	51.3	86.9
Canned	82.2	81.8	78.9	65.5	96.6
Dried	74.6	71.8	57.9	48.0	100.2
Beverages and chocolate	68.9	68.6	67.4	69.5	110.8
Fats and oils	80.1	79.6	76.8	45.2	93.7
Sugar and sweets	65.6	64.8	64.1	57.1	75.4

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

Higher prices were shown in February for 46 of the foods included in the indexes. Prices were lower for 31 and for 7 no change was



reported. Average prices for 84 foods for 51 large cities combined are shown in table 2 for February and January 1937 and for February 1936.

Table 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined [1] February and January 1937 and February 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Feb. 16	Jan. 12	Feb. 11
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	5.0	5.0	4.8
*Macaroni	do	15.4	15.3	15.0
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.2	24.2	24.1
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	8.1	8.1	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	5.4	5.4	4.9
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.7	9.8	9.1
*Rice	pound	8.5	8.5	8.5
*Rolled oats	do	7.5	7.5	7.4
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.2	8.2	8.4
Bread, whole wheat	do	9.4	9.4	9.4
Bread, rye	do	9.2	9.1	9.1
Cake	do	25.3	25.5	24.3
Soda crackers	do	18.1	18.1	17.8
Meats:				
Beef:				
*Sirloin steak	do	39.7	40.2	37.1
*Round steak	do	35.4	36.0	33.4
*Rib roast	do	30.3	30.4	29.9
*Chuck roast	do	23.5	23.8	23.0
*Plate	do	15.8	16.4	16.5
Liver	do	25.4	25.6	25.2
Veal: Cutlets	do	42.0	43.0	42.4
Pork:				
*Chops	do	32.2	33.6	32.0
Loin roast	do	26.3	27.9	26.8
*Bacon, sliced	do	39.8	39.8	42.0
Bacon, strip	do	34.3	34.2	36.7
*Ham, sliced	do	49.1	49.0	48.1
Ham, whole	do	22.6	22.9	23.6
Salt pork	do	25.0	25.2	25.5
Lamb:				
Breast	do	12.1	12.1	13.2
Chuck	do	20.7	20.7	22.2
*Leg	do	26.6	26.9	28.4
Rib chops	do	33.2	34.0	34.7
Poultry: *Roasting chickens	do	30.2	29.8	32.5
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	12.8	13.0	13.2
*Salmon, red	do	24.6	24.8	25.1
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	40.7	40.7	41.8
*Cheese	do	29.2	29.4	27.6
Cream	½ pint	15.3	15.3	14.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [2]	quart	12.3	12.3	11.7
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.5	12.5	11.8
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.8	7.9	7.4
*Eggs	dozen	33.9	39.7	36.8
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	6.6	6.3	5.3
*Bananas	do	6.7	6.7	6.2
Lemons	dozen	33.9	27.6	29.0
*Oranges	do	35.4	29.1	30.0
Beans, green	pound	15.6	12.1	15.5
*Cabbage	do	3.8	3.8	4.0
Carrots	bunch	5.6	5.9	6.1
Celery	stalk	9.3	9.9	10.2
Lettuce	head	9.9	7.9	7.6
*Onions	pound	3.7	3.3	4.3
*Potatoes	do	3.8	3.7	2.3
Spinach	do	7.2	7.1	8.2
Sweetpotatoes	do	4.6	4.3	3.7
Canned:				
Peaches	no. 2½ can	18.8	18.6	18.2
Pears	do	22.3	22.1	22.5
Pineapple	do	22.6	22.5	22.4
Asparagus	no. 2 can	27.3	27.2	25.7
Beans, green	do	12.3	12.2	11.5
*Beans with pork	16-oz. can	7.6	7.5	7.1
*Corn	no. 2 can	13.1	13.0	11.4

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population and consumption weights.
[2] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.

Table 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined—Con. February and January 1937 and February 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Feb. 16	Jan. 12	Feb. 11
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.				
Canned—Continued.		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Peas	no. 2 can	16.3	16.3	16.0
*Tomatoes	do	9.5	9.5	9.3
Tomato soup	10½-oz. can	8.1	8.1	8.0
Dried:				
Peaches	pound	17.6	17.6	17.0
*Prunes	do	10.6	10.5	9.8
*Raisins	15-oz. package	9.9	9.8	9.5
Black-eyed peas	pound	9.9	9.7	8.7
Lima beans	do	11.9	11.8	10.0
*Navy beans	do	10.3	9.5	5.6
Beverages and chocolate:				
*Coffee	do	25.0	24.9	24.2
*Tea	do	71.5	71.5	67.6
Cocoa	8-oz. can	10.3	10.1	10.8
Chocolate	8-oz. package	16.5	16.1	16.6
Fats and oils:				
*Lard	pound	17.6	17.7	16.8
Lard compound	do	16.2	16.0	15.1
*Vegetable shortening	do	21.8	21.6	21.9
Salad oil	pint	25.5	25.4	24.7
Mayonnaise	½ pint	16.9	16.9	16.8
*Oleomargarine	pound	19.8	19.4	18.6
Peanut butter	do	19.2	18.9	20.2
Sugar and sweets:				
*Sugar	do	5.7	5.6	5.6
Corn sirup	24-oz. can	14.4	14.3	13.6
Molasses	18-oz. can	14.4	14.4	14.4
Strawberry preserves	pound	21.3	21.1	20.2

Details by Regions and Cities

THE decrease of 0.1 percent in the composite food cost index for February represents an average of decreases in three of the nine regional areas, increases in five, and no change in one.

The decreases were in the areas along the Atlantic seaboard, where costs were lower in 16 of the 22 cities. The greatest decrease, 2.4 percent, was shown for Washington, D. C., where costs were lower for six of the eight commodity groups. In Bridgeport, food costs declined 2.0 percent and in Manchester they decreased 1.9 percent. In both of these cities the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables was lower, contrary to the general movement for this group. In Manchester, the price of white bread decreased 2.2 percent.

Increases were most marked in the East South Central, Mountain, and Pacific areas, every city in these areas reporting higher food costs. The four cities showing the most advance were: Portland, Oreg., 4.9 percent; Los Angeles, 3.4 percent; Salt Lake City, 3.0 percent; and Seattle, 2.7 percent. In all of these cities, prices of fresh fruits and vegetables increased more than elsewhere.

Indexes of the retail costs of food, by cities and regions, are shown in table 3 for February and January 1937, and for February in earlier years.

Table 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities [1]

February and January 1937, and February 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Feb. 16	Jan. 12	Feb. 11	Feb. 12	Feb. 15	Feb. 15	Feb. 15
Average: 51 cities combined	**84.5**	**84.6**	**80.6**	**79.8**	**60.1**	**70.4**	**102.3**
New England	**81.6**	**82.7**	**78.9**	**78.2**	**60.6**	**71.0**	**101.4**
Boston	78.8	80.3	77.2	76.1	59.6	69.7	101.3
Bridgeport	86.3	88.1	83.9	82.2	63.7	74.6	101.1
Fall River	84.4	84.8	79.6	77.9	59.2	69.9	101.5
Manchester	84.9	86.5	81.6	80.7	59.6	68.9	100.4
New Haven	87.1	87.6	82.8	83.6	63.5	75.6	102.9
Portland, Maine	82.5	83.2	79.3	77.3	61.2	72.6	101.9
Providence	82.9	83.2	78.3	77.1	60.4	69.0	99.6
Middle Atlantic	**84.1**	**84.9**	**81.5**	**80.7**	**61.3**	**71.4**	**102.2**
Buffalo	82.8	82.8	79.9	79.1	59.1	67.2	103.4
Newark	85.1	86.1	82.3	82.3	63.1	73.8	101.7
New York	84.1	84.7	82.7	81.6	63.7	73.0	102.2
Philadelphia	86.3	87.7	82.5	81.3	60.9	71.7	101.3
Pittsburgh	81.6	83.1	79.2	79.1	57.0	67.9	104.3
Rochester	84.9	83.9	79.3	77.9	57.8	68.8	100.8
Scranton	81.3	81.8	77.9	76.5	59.6	70.6	103.7
East North Central	**85.4**	**85.2**	**81.1**	**79.7**	**58.7**	**69.6**	**104.0**
Chicago	86.1	86.3	81.6	80.6	60.8	72.8	105.4
Cincinnati	89.2	87.5	83.9	81.8	60.4	71.4	106.6
Cleveland	83.1	82.0	79.6	79.2	56.9	68.3	101.6
Columbus, Ohio	86.8	84.8	81.8	81.2	57.8	68.0	103.0
Detroit	84.2	84.8	81.0	77.8	55.3	64.2	102.7
Indianapolis	86.5	85.6	79.9	78.4	57.4	68.6	104.3
Milwaukee	88.7	88.8	83.9	79.6	63.5	73.0	104.6
Peoria	87.5	86.9	81.6	79.0	58.6	69.2	103.0
Springfield, Ill	86.7	85.3	78.5	77.4	57.9	67.1	102.3
West North Central	**90.0**	**89.5**	**83.5**	**82.5**	**59.1**	**70.7**	**103.9**
Kansas City	89.6	88.4	81.0	81.5	61.9	70.2	104.1
Minneapolis	94.6	93.2	87.2	85.2	58.1	72.3	105.2
Omaha	85.2	85.5	80.2	82.7	56.4	68.6	101.4
St. Louis	90.6	90.8	85.0	82.1	59.0	71.2	104.4
St. Paul	89.3	88.6	83.7	81.9	59.9	71.1	103.7
South Atlantic	**83.7**	**84.1**	**80.1**	**79.2**	**58.9**	**68.7**	**100.5**
Atlanta	81.9	81.4	77.2	76.5	55.9	64.6	102.8
Baltimore	87.4	88.2	84.5	82.1	61.4	70.4	99.5
Charleston, S. C	84.1	83.9	80.2	78.3	58.3	71.2	99.7
Jacksonville	80.2	80.1	76.9	74.8	54.6	63.8	94.3
Norfolk	85.2	84.4	80.6	79.2	58.0	73.8	105.4
Richmond	81.4	81.6	76.7	77.0	55.9	67.1	99.2
Savannah	83.4	82.7	80.2	78.6	58.8	68.4	101.7
Washington, D. C	84.3	86.3	81.8	82.0	63.1	71.0	102.2
East South Central	**81.5**	**80.4**	**75.1**	**76.8**	**55.6**	**65.2**	**102.2**
Birmingham	76.3	75.7	70.6	71.7	53.2	61.8	99.3
Louisville	92.4	90.1	84.3	85.2	59.6	69.9	108.7
Memphis	84.0	83.4	77.1	81.2	57.1	69.8	102.5
Mobile	79.5	78.2	74.9	75.4	57.4	65.8	99.2
West South Central	**82.9**	**82.9**	**78.4**	**79.5**	**57.9**	**69.0**	**102.1**
Dallas	81.0	81.3	77.8	78.9	57.2	67.6	103.3
Houston	82.7	82.2	77.2	78.8	55.4	67.5	99.5
Little Rock	83.1	82.1	77.4	78.9	54.6	63.7	104.5
New Orleans	85.7	86.0	82.0	81.4	63.0	74.5	103.3
Mountain	**90.8**	**88.6**	**82.7**	**82.6**	**59.8**	**69.8**	**99.8**
Butte	84.7	83.5	77.6	79.3	58.6	70.8	101.5
Denver	93.9	91.8	84.8	84.4	62.4	71.1	99.9
Salt Lake City	87.0	84.5	80.2	80.6	55.7	67.2	99.3
Pacific	**84.4**	**82.2**	**77.8**	**78.4**	**62.1**	**71.8**	**100.2**
Los Angeles	81.6	78.9	72.8	75.1	59.5	68.8	98.3
Portland, Oreg	87.4	83.4	80.2	76.1	60.1	70.1	100.6
San Francisco	85.4	84.3	82.0	82.3	66.3	75.8	102.4
Seattle	88.5	86.2	80.7	79.5	60.6	71.6	100.0

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

The Bureau collects prices in 11 cities not included in the food cost indexes. These cities are in areas not adequately represented in the indexes. Average prices for each of these cities for which the data were available have been released since June 1935.

Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Since no prices are available for the base period, 1923–25, they cannot be included in the indexes.

Percentage changes in food costs between January and February 1937 are shown in table 4 for 10 of these cities.

Table 4.—Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities, Feb. 16 Compared with Jan. 12, 1937

Region and city	Percentage change Feb. 16, 1937, compared with Jan. 12, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	+1.7	+0.2	−0.9	+1.1	−16.0	+8.2	+4.3	+0.6	+2.1
Sioux Falls	+.4	−.9	+1.2	−.6	−20.4	+4.4	+.8	+2.9	+.3
Wichita	−.9	−.4	−2.1	−.8	−16.1	+1.6	+2.3	+.8	+.7
South Atlantic:									
Columbia, S. C	0	+1.5	−.2	+.9	−24.2	+2.3	+.4	+1.5	+5.0
Winston-Salem	0	+.2	+.4	+.1	−11.1	+1.2	+.3	+1.0	+.3
East South Central:									
Jackson	−.8	+.7	−2.7	−.3	−26.2	+6.7	0	+.2	+.5
Knoxville	+.1	+1.2	−.2	+.3	−20.4	+1.9	+2.0	+5.4	+.8
West South Central:									
El Paso	+.6	+.7	0	+5.5	−21.9	+5.8	+.6	−.2	−2.3
Oklahoma City	+2.0	+.2	+.1	+.3	−6.5	+8.5	+1.7	+1.1	+4.1
Pacific: Spokane	+4.8	−.2	+6.3	+1.1	−12.9	+16.4	+.8	+2.3	+2.1

WHOLESALE PRICES

Wholesale Prices in February 1937

WHOLESALE commodity prices continued moderately upward during February attaining a new recovery peak. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' all-commodity index for the month averaged 86.3, the highest level reached since the summer of 1930. During February, prices of foods in the aggregate fell fractionally below the recovery high of January. The indexes for the textile products and fuel and lighting materials groups equaled their post-depression high points of January 1937 and November 1936 respectively.

The level for each of the 10 major commodity groups, as well as the indexes for the 5 special classifications, are now substantially above their depression lows.

In table 1 are comparisons of the wholesale-price indexes for February 1937 with the last previous high and the depression low.

Table 1.—Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for February 1937 With Last Previous High and Depression Low

[1926=100]

Commodity groups	February 1937	Previous high [1]		Depression low	
		Date	Index	Date	Index
All commodities	86.3	June 1930	86.8	Feb. 1933	59.8
Farm products	91.4	May 1930	93.0	Feb. 1933	40.9
Foods	87.0	Jan. 1937	87.1	Feb. 1933	53.7
Hides and leather products	102.7	Apr. 1930	102.7	Feb. 1933	68.0
Textile products	77.5	Jan. 1937	77.5	Feb. 1933	51.2
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	Nov. 1936	76.8	May 1933	60.4
Metals and metal products	91.7	June 1930	91.9	Apr. 1933	76.9
Building materials	93.3	Apr. 1930	93.5	Aug. 1932	69.6
Chemicals and drugs	87.8	Aug. 1930	87.9	Mar. 1933	71.2
Housefurnishing goods	87.9	Apr. 1931	87.9	Apr. 1933	71.5
Miscellaneous	77.3	June 1930	78.4	Apr. 1933	57.8
Raw materials	88.3	Apr. 1930	89.8	Feb. 1933	48.4
Semimanufactured articles	85.5	Apr. 1930	86.1	July 1932	55.5
Finished products	85.4	Oct. 1930	85.4	Feb. 1933	65.7
All commodities other than farm products	85.0	June 1930	86.3	Apr. 1933	63.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.1	July 1930	84.5	Apr. 1933	65.3

[1] Last date when prices were as high as in February 1937.

Wholesale Price Level in February

CONTINUING the widespread advances of the past 4 months, the composite index of wholesale commodity prices increased 0.5 percent from January to February. Although relatively moderate, the rise

was shared by 8 of the 10 major commodity groups and it brought the all-commodity index to 86.3 percent of the 1926 average. Compared with the corresponding month of last year, the Bureau's weighted index of 784 price series for February showed an increase of 7.1 percent and was higher than at any time since June 1930, when it stood at 86.8.

The farm products, hides and leather products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, building materials, chemicals and drugs, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodity groups advanced during the month. Foods declined fractionally and textile products remained unchanged.

Changes within the major commodity groups that influenced the movement of the composite index in February are shown in table 2.

Table 2.—Number of Items Changing in Price From January to February 1937

Groups	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	255	130	399
Farm products	32	29	6
Foods	33	51	38
Hides and leather products	23	5	13
Textile products	32	22	58
Fuel and lighting materials	11	5	8
Metals and metal products	37	2	91
Buildings materials	34	3	49
Chemicals and drugs	15	8	66
Housefurnishing goods	16	0	45
Miscellaneous	22	5	25

Compared with the corresponding month of last year, each group is higher. The increases range from 0.9 percent for fuel and lighting materials to 15.0 percent for farm products.

The index for the large group "all commodities other than farm products", reflecting the movement of prices of nonagricultural commodities, advanced 0.5 percent to 85.0. The February level of nonagricultural commodity prices was 5.3 percent above a year ago. Industrial commodity prices, measured by the index for the group "all commodities other than farm products and foods", increased 0.8 percent during the month and were 6.5 percent above a year ago.

A comparison of the February level of wholesale prices with January 1937 and February 1936 is shown in table 3.

Table 3.—Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for February 1937, With January 1937 and February 1936

[1926=100]

Commodity groups	February 1937	January 1937	Change from a month ago (percent)	February 1936	Change from a year ago (percent)
All commodities	86.3	85.9	+0.5	80.6	+7.1
Farm products	91.4	91.3	+.1	79.5	+15.0
Foods	87.6	87.1	−.1	83.2	+4.6
Hides and leather products	102.7	101.7	+1.0	96.1	+6.9
Textile products	77.5	77.5	0	71.0	+9.2
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	76.6	+.3	76.1	+.9
Metals and metal products	91.7	90.9	+.9	86.7	+5.8
Building materials	93.3	91.3	+2.2	85.5	+9.1
Chemicals and drugs	87.8	87.7	+.1	80.1	+9.6
Housefurnishing goods	87.9	86.5	+1.6	81.5	+7.9
Miscellaneous	77.3	76.2	+1.4	68.1	+13.5
Raw materials	88.3	88.1	+.2	79.1	+11.6
Semimanufactured articles	85.5	85.4	+.1	74.6	+14.6
Finished products	85.4	84.9	+.6	82.2	+3.9
All commodities other than farm products	85.0	84.6	+.5	80.7	+5.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.1	83.4	+.8	79.0	+6.5

Raw materials prices were irregular during the month. The index for nonprocessed commodities averaged 88.3 during the month, an increase of 0.2 percent over January. The February level was 11.6 percent higher than a year ago. A minor increase was also registered in prices of semimanufactured articles. The advance brought the February index to 85.5, representing an increase of 14.6 percent over the corresponding month of last year. Wholesale prices of finished products strengthened appreciably, the February index standing at 85.4. This was an increase of 0.6 percent compared with the previous month and an increase of 3.9 percent over February 1936.

Market prices of farm products rose 0.1 percent in February. The increase was largely the result of advancing prices for hops, fresh apples, oranges, dried beans, onions, and potatoes. Due to lower prices for calves and live poultry, the livestock and poultry subgroup fell 1.6 percent. Grains declined 1.3 percent because of weakening prices for corn, oats, and wheat. Although the advance in farm product prices amounted to only 0.1 percent during the month, the current index—91.4—was 15.0 percent higher than in the corresponding month of last year.

Wholesale food prices fell 0.1 percent, due primarily to weakening prices of dairy products, meats, and the subgroup "other foods." Lower prices were reported for evaporated and powdered milk, canned peas, fresh veal, cocoa beans, copra, cured fish, grape jam, lard, oleo

oil, tomato soup, raw sugar, and edible tallow. Fruits and vegetables rose 6.6 percent and cereal products advanced 1.3 percent. Higher prices were reported for bread in the New York market, canned tomatoes, fresh lamb, fresh mutton, coffee, peanut butter, and raisins. The food index for the month—87.0—was 0.1 percent below the January level, but 4.6 percent higher than a year ago.

The index for the hides and leather products group rose to 102.7 percent of the 1926 average. Sharp advances were reported in prices of shoes and leather. Luggage prices increased slightly. Prices of hides and skins, on the other hand, declined.

The index for the textile products group remained at 77.5. Increases in clothing, knit goods, and woolen goods offset decreases in cotton goods, silk and rayon, and other textile products. Coarse cotton textile prices averaged higher as did also woolen dress goods and overcoating. Print cloth, raw silk, and silk yarns declined.

Rising prices for bituminous-coal and petroleum products caused the index for the fuel and lighting materials group to increase 0.3 percent in February. Gas declined sharply and anthracite and coke remained unchanged.

Primarily due to sharp advances in wholesale prices of nonferrous metals, the index for metals and metal products rose 0.9 percent. Agricultural implements, iron and steel, motor vehicles, and plumbing and heating fixtures advanced slightly.

Pronounced price advances in brick, lumber, paint materials, plate glass, doors, and sash brought the building materials index to 93.3, the highest point reached since April 1930. Rosin prices declined and cement and structural steel remained steady.

A firmer tone was shown in prices of fertilizer materials and mixed fertilizers. Drugs and pharmaceuticals advanced sharply and chemicals declined slightly. Individual items for which higher prices were reported were copper sulphate, glycerine, and ground bone. Acetic acid, potassium iodide, and tankage declined.

The housefurnishing goods group index rose to 87.9 percent of the 1926 average. Both furniture and furnishings shared in the advance.

Cattle feed prices declined 4.4 percent during the month. Paper and pulp increased 3.2 percent; automobile tires and tubes, 2.9 percent; and other miscellaneous commodities, 1.2 percent. Crude rubber remained unchanged at the January level.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for February and January 1937 and for February of each of the past 7 years are shown in table 4.

Table 4.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	Feb. 1937	Jan. 1937	Feb. 1936	Feb. 1935	Feb. 1934	Feb. 1933	Feb. 1932	Feb. 1931	Feb. 1930
All commodities	86.3	85.9	80.6	79.5	73.6	59.8	66.3	76.8	91.4
Farm products	91.4	91.3	79.5	79.1	61.3	40.9	50.6	70.1	98.0
Grains	111.5	113.0	78.3	87.4	63.2	32.7	46.1	60.4	89.0
Livestock and poultry	89.9	91.4	90.3	78.4	48.2	40.1	50.3	69.6	101.3
Other farm products	86.3	84.8	72.7	76.8	68.3	44.2	52.7	73.6	98.9
Foods	87.0	87.1	83.2	82.7	66.7	53.7	62.5	78.0	95.8
Dairy products	88.7	88.9	85.7	87.0	69.1	52.4	64.1	83.0	97.1
Cereal products	89.3	88.1	88.5	91.9	85.7	60.4	69.6	75.5	86.1
Fruits and vegetables	87.8	82.4	62.4	63.6	71.7	52.4	61.8	74.2	103.1
Meats	90.3	90.6	92.1	87.9	53.3	50.2	59.5	83.6	105.1
Other foods	78.8	82.1	78.1	77.2	64.1	54.1	59.4	71.1	87.4
Hides and leather products	102.7	101.7	96.1	86.0	89.6	68.0	78.3	86.9	103.9
Shoes	101.4	99.7	100.5	97.2	98.4	83.3	88.5	95.0	103.8
Hides and skins	114.9	116.0	96.7	69.6	78.0	40.9	46.1	57.7	99.0
Leather	95.5	94.3	86.0	74.6	80.1	55.3	76.5	89.0	107.7
Other leather products	101.7	101.1	95.4	84.6	86.9	77.9	98.8	102.0	106.1
Textile products	77.5	77.5	71.0	70.1	76.9	51.2	59.5	70.9	86.4
Clothing	84.2	83.9	80.7	78.5	87.2	61.2	69.4	79.1	88.9
Cotton goods	91.3	91.9	78.1	83.3	88.6	49.1	56.4	73.1	92.8
Knit goods	64.7	64.4	62.0	63.6	67.0	48.3	55.8	64.5	85.3
Silk and rayon	33.7	34.5	31.6	28.1	31.0	25.6	36.5	47.0	74.2
Woolen and worsted goods	93.1	91.9	82.8	73.6	84.3	53.2	63.1	73.5	84.2
Other textile products	65.9	66.2	67.2	68.6	77.8	66.2	69.7	77.8	87.8
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	76.6	76.1	72.5	72.4	63.6	68.3	72.5	80.9
Anthracite	81.6	81.6	82.6	82.3	81.2	88.7	94.8	88.9	91.2
Bituminous coal	97.4	96.8	100.1	96.4	91.1	79.4	84.3	87.8	91.4
Coke	97.6	97.6	93.7	88.8	83.5	75.2	80.4	83.8	84.2
Electricity	(1)	(1)	86.2	90.3	91.8	102.9	104.8	94.5	97.3
Gas	(1)	82.2	82.1	87.7	89.3	96.6	98.0	95.8	93.7
Petroleum products	59.1	58.3	55.7	48.7	50.3	34.3	38.6	50.2	65.7
Metals and metal products	91.7	90.9	86.7	85.8	87.0	77.4	80.9	86.5	96.9
Agricultural implements	93.1	93.0	94.9	93.6	85.2	83.1	85.1	94.3	97.3
Iron and steel	92.0	91.7	86.9	86.1	86.3	77.3	79.3	85.6	91.4
Motor vehicles	93.0	93.0	93.6	93.6	97.8	90.9	95.3	94.4	103.1
Nonferrous metals	89.4	84.8	69.7	67.2	65.8	46.2	52.7	68.4	101.0
Plumbing and heating	77.4	77.1	73.8	67.1	72.7	59.4	65.8	86.6	93.2
Building materials	93.3	91.3	85.5	85.0	86.6	69.8	73.4	82.5	94.0
Brick and tile	91.0	89.7	88.4	90.6	87.2	75.1	79.3	86.3	92.6
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	93.9	93.9	81.8	75.3	87.9	92.7
Lumber	99.0	93.0	82.3	80.5	87.3	56.4	62.9	74.0	91.5
Paint and paint materials	83.4	83.7	79.5	78.8	79.3	68.0	75.1	80.5	94.8
Plumbing and heating	77.4	77.1	73.8	67.1	72.7	59.4	65.8	86.6	93.2
Structural steel	104.7	104.7	92.0	92.0	86.8	81.7	77.9	84.3	91.9
Other building materials	95.0	93.9	89.5	90.3	90.3	78.5	80.2	87.8	96.8
Chemicals and drugs	87.8	87.7	80.1	80.4	75.5	71.3	75.5	83.3	92.3
Chemicals	95.6	96.4	87.0	86.5	78.8	79.0	80.8	86.6	97.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	83.0	79.0	73.2	73.1	71.5	54.8	60.1	65.2	69.2
Fertilizer materials	70.7	70.6	64.5	66.2	69.2	61.5	69.8	81.1	89.5
Mixed fertilizers	71.7	71.4	68.8	72.8	72.5	62.4	73.7	89.1	96.2
Housefurnishing goods	87.9	86.5	81.5	80.7	81.0	72.3	77.5	88.1	93.6
Furnishings	91.2	89.0	85.0	84.1	83.0	72.9	75.9	84.6	92.7
Furniture	84.5	84.0	77.9	77.2	79.2	71.9	79.5	92.0	94.8
Miscellaneous	77.3	76.2	68.1	70.1	68.5	59.2	64.7	71.5	81.2
Automobile tires and tubes	53.1	51.8	45.0	47.5	43.5	42.6	39.5	46.9	53.0
Cattle feed	129.4	135.4	68.1	109.0	73.4	40.6	48.2	71.6	107.5
Paper and pulp	87.5	84.8	79.9	80.9	82.7	72.1	76.7	83.1	87.8
Rubber, crude	44.3	44.3	32.0	26.2	21.4	6.1	8.6	16.1	32.8
Other miscellaneous	84.2	83.1	80.6	80.1	83.2	73.3	84.4	89.3	99.3
Raw materials	88.3	88.1	79.1	77.4	66.0	48.4	56.9	70.6	91.8
Semimanufactured articles	85.5	85.4	74.6	71.7	74.8	56.3	61.9	73.0	89.4
Finished products	85.4	84.9	82.2	81.5	77.0	65.7	71.4	80.3	91.5
All commodities other than farm products	85.0	84.6	80.7	79.4	76.1	63.7	69.6	78.2	90.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.1	83.4	79.0	77.4	78.7	66.0	71.3	78.3	89.0

[1] Data not yet available.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups

INDEX numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1936, inclusive, and by months from January 1936 to February 1937, inclusive, are shown in table 5.

Table 5.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1936:											
January	78.2	83.5	97.1	71.7	75.1	86.7	85.7	80.5	81.4	67.8	80.6
February	79.5	83.2	96.1	71.0	76.1	86.7	85.5	80.1	81.5	68.1	80.6
March	76.5	80.1	94.9	70.8	76.2	86.6	85.3	79.3	81.4	68.3	79.6
April	76.9	80.2	94.6	70.2	76.4	86.6	85.7	78.5	81.5	68.6	79.7
May	75.2	78.0	94.0	69.8	76.0	86.3	85.8	77.7	81.5	69.2	78.6
June	78.1	79.9	93.8	69.7	76.1	86.2	85.8	78.0	81.4	69.7	79.2
July	81.3	81.4	93.4	70.5	76.2	86.9	86.7	79.4	81.2	71.0	80.5
August	83.8	83.1	93.6	70.9	76.3	87.1	86.9	79.8	81.4	71.5	81.6
Septemer	84.0	83.3	94.6	70.9	76.1	86.8	87.1	81.7	81.7	71.3	81.6
October	84.0	82.6	95.6	71.6	76.8	86.9	87.3	82.2	82.0	71.5	81.5
November	85.1	83.9	97.0	73.5	76.8	87.9	87.7	82.5	82.3	73.4	82.4
December	88.5	85.5	99.7	76.3	76.5	89.6	89.5	85.3	83.2	74.5	84.2
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102.7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 6 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than those designated as farm products and foods. All commodities, with the exception of those included in the groups of farm products and foods, have been included in the group of "All commodities other than farm products and foods." The list of commodities included under the designations "Raw materials", "Semimanufactured articles", and "Finished products" was given in the October 1934 issue of this publication.

Table 6.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1936:					
January	78.1	74.8	82.4	80.9	78.8
February	79.1	74.6	82.2	80.7	79.0
March	77.4	74.4	81.3	80.2	78.9
April	77.0	74.5	81.6	80.1	78.9
May	75.8	74.1	80.5	79.2	78.8
June	77.6	73.9	80.7	79.4	78.8
July	79.8	75.2	81.6	80.3	79.5
August	81.5	75.6	82.4	80.9	79.7
September	81.8	75.9	82.3	80.9	79.6
October	82.1	76.2	82.0	80.9	80.1
November	83.1	78.6	82.6	81.7	81.0
December	85.6	82.3	83.8	83.1	82.2
1937:					
January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
February	88.3	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1

Weekly Fluctuations

ALTHOUGH the general tendency of wholesale commodity prices was higher in February, the course was irregular with a weakening toward the latter part of the month. The fluctuations in the several groups of commodities during the month are shown by the weekly index numbers in table 7 and the percentage changes from week to week are given in table 8.

Table 7.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Commodity groups	Feb. 27, 1937	Feb. 20, 1937	Feb. 13, 1937	Feb. 6, 1937	Jan. 30, 1937	Jan. 23, 1937	Jan. 16, 1937	Jan. 9, 1937	Jan. 2, 1937
All commodities	86.1	86.0	85.6	85.4	85.4	85.3	85.7	85.2	84.7
Farm products	91.4	91.4	91.6	90.5	91.4	90.3	92.3	90.9	90.4
Foods	86.7	86.9	86.6	86.7	86.9	86.7	87.3	86.7	86.2
Hides and leather products	103.2	103.6	103.3	103.1	102.8	102.6	101.8	102.0	101.1
Textile products	76.9	77.0	76.9	77.0	76.9	76.9	76.9	76.8	76.2
Fuel and lighting materials	77.8	77.8	77.6	77.2	77.0	76.9	77.1	77.5	77.2
Metals and metal products	92.0	91.1	90.5	90.4	90.7	90.7	90.4	90.1	89.9
Building materials	93.7	92.8	92.2	92.1	91.2	91.2	91.2	90.8	90.2
Chemicals and drugs	87.5	87.7	87.0	87.2	87.6	88.0	87.9	86.8	86.1
Housefurnishing goods	89.4	89.4	87.4	87.3	85.8	85.7	85.4	85.3	84.3
Miscellaneous	77.2	77.2	75.9	75.8	75.7	75.3	75.6	74.9	74.9
Raw materials	88.1	88.1	88.2	87.4	88.0	87.2	88.4	87.4	86.9
Semimanufactured articles	86.5	85.6	84.9	84.9	85.4	85.6	85.7	84.9	84.3
Finished products	85.4	85.3	84.9	84.8	84.6	84.6	84.8	84.6	84.1
All commodities other than farm products	84.9	84.8	84.3	84.2	84.1	84.1	84.3	84.0	83.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.4	84.2	83.6	83.5	83.2	83.1	83.1	83.0	82.6

Table 8.—Weekly Changes (Percent) During February 1937, by Groups of Commodities

Commodity groups	Percentage change from—				
	Jan. 30 to Feb. 27	Feb. 20 to Feb. 27	Feb. 13 to Feb. 20	Feb. 6 to Feb. 13	Jan. 30 to Feb. 6
All commodities	+0.8	+0.1	+0.5	+0.2	0
Farm products	0	0	−.2	+1.2	−1.0
Foods	−.2	−.2	+.3	−.1	−.2
Hides and leather products	+.4	−.4	+.3	+.2	+.3
Textile products	0	−.1	+.1	−.1	+.1
Fuel and lighting materials	+1.0	0	+.3	+.5	+.3
Metals and metal products	+1.4	+1.0	+.7	+.1	−.3
Building materials	+2.7	+1.0	+.7	+.1	+1.0
Chemicals and drugs	−.1	−.2	+.8	−.2	−.5
Housefurnishing goods	+4.2	0	+2.3	+.1	+1.7
Miscellaneous	+2.0	0	+1.7	+.1	+.1
Raw materials	+.1	0	−.1	+.9	−.7
Semimanufactured articles	+1.3	+1.1	+.8	0	−.6
Finished products	+.9	+.1	+.5	+.1	+.2
All commodities other than farm products	+1.0	+.1	+.6	+.1	+.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	+1.4	+.2	+.7	+.1	+.4

Source and Frequency of Wholesale Price Quotations

THE source and frequency of price quotations for the 784 individual series included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' weighted index number of wholesale commodity prices is shown in table 9.

Table 9.—Source and Frequency of Wholesale Price Quotations, February 1937

Source and frequency	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products
Standard trade journals	56	81	12	23	15	55
Manufacturers or sales agents	6	36	29	81	9	74
Boards of trade, associations, etc.	3	5		8		
Federal or State bureaus	2					1
Total	67	122	41	112	24	130
Daily						
Weekly	66	117	41	112	22	130
Monthly	1	5			2	
Total	67	122	41	112	24	130

Table 9.—Source and Frequency of Wholesale Price Quotations, February 1937—Continued

Source and frequency	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	Totals
Standard trade journals	28	80		17	367
Manufacturers or sales agents	49	3	61	35	383
Boards of trade, associations, etc	9	6			31
Federal or State bureaus					3
Total	86	89	61	52	784
Daily					0
Weekly	[1] 79	83	48	52	[1] 750
Monthly	7	6	13		34
Total	[1] 86	89	61	52	[1] 784

[1] Includes 1 biweekly.

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

THE table showing monthly average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price pamphlet is now published semiannually instead of monthly. The December 1936 issue showed the average for the year 1936 and information for the last 6 months of 1936. The monthly figures will be furnished upon request.

COST OF LIVING

Money Disbursements of Families of Negro Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in Richmond, Birmingham, and New Orleans [1]

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics' study of the money expenditures of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers includes data from 1,575 Negro families in 16 cities.[2] The families studied were chosen to represent a cross section of the families of employed Negro wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in the cities covered. The data obtained from the Negro group on expenditures for consumer goods of all types will be combined in the proper proportions with the data obtained from the white group in preparing new weights for the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of the cost of goods purchased by these classes. On that account, it was of especial importance that the averages obtained should not reflect the spending of families whose incomes had been below certain specified levels. Families which had received relief during the year and families whose incomes were under $500 a year were excluded from the sample. All of the families covered by the investigation included one or more wage earners or lower-salaried clerical workers in industry or business, who worked a minimum of 1,008 hours in at least 36 weeks (the equivalent of 36 weeks, each with 3½ days of 8 hours per day). As in the case of the white families, an exception was made to include families in which the chief earner had been employed in an industry distinctly seasonal 3½ 8-hour days during each of at least 30 weeks. Although some of the families studied had as supplementary earners members who were domestic servants in private families, no families in which a person in private domestic service was the chief earner were included.

The limitation of the funds allotted to the investigation made it necessary to restrict the groups covered to the number which seemed absolutely necessary to obtain reliable averages. A preliminary study indicated that the incomes of families in the Negro wage-earner and clerical groups do not represent so wide a range as do those of the

[1] Prepared by the Cost of Living Division, Faith M. Williams, Chief. The field work in Richmond was supervised by Mrs. Edna G. Berglund; in Birmingham by Miss Ruth A. Allen; and in New Orleans by Miss Allen and Mr. Robert E. Thomas. In Richmond the study was carried on in cooperation with the Richmond and Henrico County Consumers' Council, the Virginia State Tax Commission, and the Virginia Emergency Relief Administration; in New Orleans in cooperation with the School for Social Work of Tulane University and the Louisiana Emergency Relief Administration.

[2] The cities in which Negroes were studied are as follows: Baltimore, Birmingham, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Jackson (Miss.), Kansas City (Mo.), Louisville, Memphis, Mobile, New Orleans, New York City, Norfolk, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Richmond, and St. Louis.

white families in these occupations and that their spending habits for this reason are more homogeneous than those of the white group. It was therefore decided that a sample of approximately 100 cases in each city would be sufficient to provide representative averages for the Negro families.

The cities in which Negroes were studied were chosen on the basis of the number of employed Negro wage earners and clerical workers in the city at the time of the investigation.

Incomes of Negro Families in Three Southern Cities

DATA on the range of incomes and expenditures per consumption unit[3] among the Negro groups studied in Richmond, Birmingham, and New Orleans (table 1) confirm the hypothesis on which the size of the samples was fixed. The range in economic status among the Negro families studied in these three Southern cities was very much less than among the families of white workers in samples similarly chosen.[4] Figures on the sources of the incomes of the Negro families (table 2) show small receipts from sources other than earnings, and the low level of the average earnings themselves indicate that these families had slight opportunity to accumulate savings for investment. Among the white workers studied, earnings in Richmond were higher than in Birmingham, and in Birmingham higher than in New Orleans. In the case of the Negroes, the earnings in Richmond were higher than in the other two cities, but in New Orleans they were higher than in Birmingham.

Table 1.—Variations in Economic Status Among Families of Employed Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Clerical Workers, in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34

Measures of variation in—	Richmond		Birmingham		New Orleans	
	White families	Negro families	White families	Negro families	White families	Negro families
Net family incomes:						
Lowest [1]	$514	$501	$515	$500	$516	$502
First quartile	1,168	726	1,080	637	912	650
Median	1,494	858	1,388	767	1,260	780
Third quartile	1,911	1,030	1,785	918	1,655	998
Highest	4,670	3,449	3,680	1,976	3,835	1,692
Expenditures per consumption unit:						
Lowest	106	114	144	84	98	82
First quartile	330	191	317	168	273	179
Median	451	295	432	254	400	251
Third quartile	654	392	621	338	521	347
Highest	1,296	980	1,302	720	1,330	590

[1] The lowest income was arbitrarily determined by the method of selecting the families. See p. 1060.

[3] For a description of the method of computation of the "expenditure per consumption unit" see Monthly Labor Review, March 1936 (pp. 558–559).

[4] The incomes and expenditures of white families in these cities were discussed in an article in the May 1936 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 1457). The studies in Richmond and New Orleans cover the area included within the city limits as these cities have no important industrial suburbs. The Birmingham industrial area covers in addition to the city proper the suburbs of Fairfield, Tarrant City, Irondale, and Bessemer, and they were included in the investigation.

Table 2.—Sources and Average Amount of Family Income Among Negro Families in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34

Item	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans
Number of families	96	101	83
Average number of members in economic family	3.85	3.84	3.83
Average number of gainful workers per family	1.77	1.45	1.41
Average earnings of chief earner	$700	$721	$740
Average earnings per family	$876	$804	$830
Average net income per family	$929	$828	$841
	Percentage distribution		
Sources of income:			
Earnings of—			
Husband	65.0	80.1	76.4
Other men and boys	10.5	9.7	10.0
Homemaker	16.0	5.2	6.5
Other women and girls	2.8	1.9	5.7
Total family earnings	94.3	96.9	98.6
Rent from boarders and/or lodgers (net)	1.7	1.9	1.2
Other rents (net)	.2	.2	.1
Interest and dividends			
Pensions and annuities	.6	.5	
Gifts	.6	.4	.1
Other family income	2.6	.1	
Total family income	100.0	100.0	100.0

Distribution of Average Current Expenditures

THE higher economic level of the Negro group in Richmond, as compared with Birmingham and New Orleans, is indicated not only by the larger total amount spent for consumption goods, but also by the lower percentage of total current expenditures going for food. On the average the proportion spent for food was 31.7 in Richmond, 33.5 in Birmingham, and 38.2 in New Orleans. As in the case of the white families studied in Birmingham and New Orleans, the larger percentage spent for food by the New Orleans group can be accounted for only after a detailed analysis of the types of food consumed, which is now in process. The average amounts spent for food by these families ($291 in Richmond, $270 in Birmingham, and $311 in New Orleans) were considerably lower than the average for food expenditures for the white group in any city for which the data have been summarized so far. These average money expenditures were not extensively supplemented by food received as gifts or pay or produced in the family garden. The families interviewed in all three cities were asked to estimate both the quantity and the money value of their home produced food and of food received as gifts. The annual money value so estimated averaged $3.96 in Richmond, $11.85 in Birmingham, and $3.14 in New Orleans. The Richmond families estimated, in addition, the value of meals and other food received as pay; these averaged $28.39.

Approximately one-third of the Negro families studied in these three cities kept supervised records of their food consumption. Specially trained agents assisted the housewives in taking an inventory of the food on hand in the house at the beginning of the week, in recording the amount and the cost of the food brought into the house during the week, and in taking an inventory of the food on hand at the end of the week. The nutritional adequacy of the food consumed as shown by these records is in process of analysis by the United States Bureau of Home Economics. Preliminary figures from the east south central region indicate that only 13 percent of the Negro families whose diets have been analysed so far had diets which contained protein, calcium, phosphorus, and iron enough to provide a margin of safety for each nutrient; 31 percent met what seem to be minimum requirements for these nutrients but afforded little or no margin of safety; and 56 percent failed to meet minimum requirements.

Distribution of Expenditures at Different Economic Levels

THE families studied in all three cities were grouped according to expenditure per consumption unit by a method described in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936. Classification by the total expenditures of the family without regard to the number and type of consumers sharing the goods purchased would be confusing, as economic level necessarily depends on the number of consumers in the family as well as the total amount spent. Total family expenditures were therefore reduced to an outlay per consumption unit; that is, per equivalent adult male, calculated for each family. The amount of the total expenditure per consumption unit indicates the economic level of the family.

It is obvious that the amount spent for each consumer in a family with a given income will depend on the number of consumption units in the family. For example, a family with an income of $1,500, including a father in factory work, a mother at home, a sister in clerical work, and five children, saving $50 during the year, and spending $1,450 for consumer goods, will have an expenditure of $208 per consumption unit. Another family, with expenditures of $1,450 including a father in factory work, a mother at home, and two children, will have an expenditure of $401 per consumption unit.

When the families in the three cities under consideration had been sorted according to the amount of their expenditure per consumption unit, it was found that average size of family at the lowest economic level was considerably larger in each city than the average size of family at the upper level (table 3). The average family at the lowest economic level distinguished for the three cities combined was more than twice as large as the average family at the highest economic

level for the three cities so combined. The average total family expenditure at the highest level for the three cities combined was 48.8 percent larger than average total family expenditure at the lowest level.

Trends in consumption from one economic level to another were in general very similar in all three cities. The percentage spent for food was lower at the higher expenditure levels. The percentage spent for housefurnishings and equipment, transportation, and recreation increased from the lower to the higher economic level. The percentage spent for personal care (barber, hairdresser, soap, cosmetics, etc.) remained very stable, varying the most in Birmingham—from 2.1 to 2.6 percent. Among the Richmond families the percentage of total expenditures allocated to the purchase of clothing showed little change with the shift from lower to higher economic level, but among those in Birmingham and New Orleans declined with increase in total expenditure per consumption unit. This decline was accounted for by the smaller size of the families at the higher expenditure levels, and by the fact that as incomes increase, the relative urgency of other wants results in a reduction in the percentage spent for clothing. The percentage of total expenditures going for housing and household operation declined at the highest expenditure level shown in Richmond, but in the other two cities it varied within a range of two to four points without a definite trend.

Table 3.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Negro Families at Different Consumption Levels, in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34

Richmond

Item	All families	Families with annual expenditure per consumption unit of —			
		Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and over
Number of families	96	25	23	24	24
Average number of members in economic family	3.85	6.29	3.96	2.75	2.29
Average number of consumption units per family	3.32	5.02	3.50	2.57	2.11
Average total current expenditure	$919	$842	$862	$877	$1,101
	Percentage distribution				
Expenditure for—					
Food	31.7	39.6	34.6	30.7	23.8
Clothing	11.0	10.9	10.8	11.4	11.0
Housing	12.8	15.0	14.1	13.9	9.4
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	11.3	12.2	11.8	10.9	10.5
Other household operation	3.9	3.3	4.1	4.2	3.9
Furnishings and equipment	4.4	2.9	4.5	4.9	5.0
Transportation	4.9	2.4	3.8	4.7	8.0
Personal care	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.5
Medical care	6.4	4.9	4.4	7.6	8.4
Recreation	5.7	4.2	5.3	4.9	7.5
Education	.4	.5	.8	.2	.2
Vocation	(1)				.1
Community welfare	1.4	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.7
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	2.6	.5	1.7	2.7	4.7
Miscellaneous items	1.0			.1	3.3
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 5/100 of 1 percent.

Table 3.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Negro Families at Different Consumption Levels, in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34—Continued

Birmingham

Item	All families	Families with annual expenditure per consumption unit of —			
		Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and over
Number of families	101	38	27	17	19
Average number of members in economic family	3.84	5.46	3.33	2.49	2.55
Average number of consumption units per family	3.36	4.60	3.05	2.30	2.35
Average total current expenditure	$806	$670	$737	$770	$1,211
	Percentage distribution				
Expenditure for—					
Food	33.5	38.7	35.9	31.4	26.7
Clothing	13.5	14.8	14.2	12.5	12.1
Housing	11.9	12.0	11.0	12.1	12.6
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	7.2	6.7	8.1	8.0	6.4
Other household operation	3.9	3.3	3.3	4.8	4.5
Furnishings and equipment	4.7	4.8	3.0	4.8	6.1
Transportation	6.5	4.0	5.3	6.4	10.2
Personal care	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.3	2.1
Medical care	4.5	4.6	4.5	5.5	3.9
Recreation	6.3	5.4	6.1	7.4	6.9
Education	.7	.6	.3	.3	1.7
Vocation	.5	.6	1.1	.3	.1
Community welfare	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.7
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	2.2	.4	2.0	1.3	4.8
Miscellaneous items	.6	.6	1.1	1.0	.2
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

New Orleans

Number of families	83	27	22	18	16
Average number of members in economic family	3.83	5.81	3.56	2.76	2.09
Average number of consumption units per family	3.39	4.97	3.15	2.59	1.93
Average total current expenditure	$816	$740	$756	$869	$968
	Percentage distribution				
Expenditure for—					
Food	38.2	41.7	36.7	38.3	34.9
Clothing	9.8	10.8	9.9	9.5	8.9
Housing	19.1	21.6	17.9	17.8	18.4
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	7.7	7.2	8.1	6.8	8.7
Other household operation	2.8	2.7	3.1	2.4	3.3
Furnishings and equipment	3.2	2.0	4.8	2.4	3.5
Transportation	4.7	3.9	3.6	5.1	6.2
Personal care	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.2
Medical care	4.2	2.7	5.0	5.1	4.3
Recreation	4.9	3.2	5.0	5.8	6.2
Education	.2	.4	----	.2	.3
Vocation	.2	.1	.3	.2	.4
Community welfare	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	1.5	.3	2.5	2.2	1.4
Miscellaneous items	.2	----	.1	.5	.3
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Housing Facilities and Equipment

VERY few of the families covered by this report had the combined comforts of running hot water, inside flush toilets, electric lights, and gas or electricity for cooking (table 4). In Richmond, where a third

of the home-owning families had these facilities, there was a sharp contrast between home owners and renters, a higher percentage of the former having all but two types of convenience. For these two types of convenience (central heating and telephones), the percentages in the two tenure groups were very similar. In Birmingham also the owners were better equipped than the renters. In New Orleans the percentage of home owners was considerably smaller (about one-tenth of the sample), and the average rental value of their homes was lower than that of the renters.

Less than half of the renting families in Richmond and Birmingham had inside flush toilets, and in Birmingham (where the industrial area includes several suburbs outside the city limits) approximately a fifth of the renters and a tenth of the owners used privies. A fourth of the Richmond renters and a third of the Birmingham renters had no running water in their houses; less than two-thirds of Richmond renters and half of the renters in Birmingham and New Orleans had electric lights; only 1 out of the 81 Birmingham renters had gas or electricity for cooking; and a tenth of the Birmingham renters had no ice boxes. The facilities of the dwellings of New Orleans renters seemed in general, somewhat better than those of the Birmingham renters' dwellings, but the percentage of the families studied having refrigerators was greater in Birmingham than in New Orleans.

Table 4.—Household Facilities and Equipment of Negro Families in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34.

Item	Richmond		Birmingham		New Orleans	
	Renters	Owners	Renters	Owners	Renters	Owners
Number of families	65	31	81	20	75	8
Average monthly rental rate [1] or rental value	$11.53	$14.89	$7.03	$12.72	$13.39	$11.77
	Number of families in each class having specified facility					
Families having—						
1-family detached house	17	23	48	19	24	5
1-family semidetached or row or 2-family house	38	8	32	1	48	3
Apartment	10		1		3	
Inside flush toilet	30	18	40	17	54	4
Outside flush toilet	35	13	25	1	15	2
Other type toilet			16	2	6	2
Sole use of toilet by household	44	30	60	19	61	8
Water inside dwelling:						
Running	48	26	52	17	61	4
Hot running	8	11	1	5	12	1
Sink	49	27	57	16	61	5
Electric lights	42	28	39	19	42	5
Gas or electricity for cooking	4	15	1	2	19	
Electric refrigerator	1	1		1		
Ice refrigerator	62	30	73	19	66	6
No refrigerator	2		8		9	2
Hot air, hot water, or steam heat	3	1	1	2		
Telephone	9	4	1	4	3	1
Inside flush toilet and running hot water inside dwelling, and electric lights, and gas or electricity for cooking	4	10			6	

[1] The services and equipment are sometimes furnished by the landlord and sometimes by the family.

Transportation

ABOUT a seventh of the Negro families studied in Richmond, a fifth of those in Birmingham, and a twelfth of those in New Orleans owned automobiles. The larger part of the total expenditure for transportation by the Negro group in all three cities went for street-car fares. That even street-car fares were a luxury is indicated by the fact that in Richmond the average amount spent increased from $11 for the group whose family expenditure was under $200 per consumption unit to $32 for the group with $400 per consumption unit; in Birmingham from $13 to $32; and in New Orleans from $26 to $35. Apparently for Richmond families at the lowest expenditure level, walking was the most frequent mode of transportation, since over one-third of the families spent nothing at all on street cars or buses.

Table 5.—Transportation Expenditures of Negro Families in 3 Southern Cities, 1933–34

Item	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans
Number of families	96	101	83
Average number of persons in economic family	3.85	3.84	3.83
Number of families owning automobiles	13	19	7
Number of automobiles—			
Made in 1925–29	11	15	6
Made in 1930–32	2	5	1
Made in 1933–35			
Purchased new	2		
Purchased secondhand	11	20	7
Number of families buying automobiles in schedule year:			
New			
Secondhand	2	4	2
Number of families having disbursements for—			
Trolley	67	91	62
Local bus	7	1	3
Taxi	5	6	3
Railroad	4	21	3
Interurban bus	3	1	3
Average expenditure per family for all transportation	$45.31	$52.41	$37.98
For automobiles and their upkeep	16.91	29.04	11.68
Purchase of automobiles	2.78	9.29	2.45
Gasoline	7.20	11.28	5.81
Fall	1.82	2.88	1.55
Winter	1.61	2.67	1.05
Spring	1.78	2.73	1.57
Summer	1.99	3.00	1.64
Oil	1.37	1.17	.63
Tires	.94	1.73	.84
Tubes	.08	.12	.05
Repairs and maintenance	.37	2.43	.22
Garage rent and parking	1.23		
Licenses	2.44	2.22	1.58
Taxes		.50	.10
Insurance	.22	.16	
Fines and damages		.04	
Rent of automobile or motorcycle	.28	.10	
For other transportation	28.40	23.37	26.30
Trolley	23.67	18.91	24.51
Local bus	2.79	.01	.30
Taxi	.86	1.62	.03
Railroad	.66	2.15	.18
Interurban bus	.42	.01	.34
Other transportation		.67	.94

Changes in Financial Position

ONE Negro family in Richmond received an inheritance, but this was next to the smallest average source of funds other than current income (table 7). In all three cities, the most frequent method of meeting obligations for goods not paid for with current income was the contraction of debts for goods purchased on installment. A larger percentage of the Negro families (table 6) than of the white families [5] studied in these three cities came through the year with a net credit. More than half of the white families ended the year with reductions in outstanding debts or increase in reserves, while nearly two-thirds of the Negro families in Richmond and Birmingham and one-half in New Orleans bettered their financial position during the year. The total receipts of the Negro families and the average amount of their improvement in financial position were considerably smaller than those of the white families.

Increase in assets most frequently took the form of life or "burial" insurance payments; and payment of old installment debts was the second most frequent type of disposition of funds for other than current living.

Table 6.—Negro Families in 3 Southern Cities Reporting Increases in Assets or Decreases in Liabilities in the Year 1933–34

Item	Number of families reporting			Average amount reported per family		
	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans
Increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities	58	62	44	$52.16	$54.98	$38.76
Increase in family assets:						
Increase in cash—						
On hand	1	5	6	1.01	2.74	4.72
In checking account	1	-------	-------	.66	-------	-------
In savings account	8	10	3	10.77	6.73	.83
Investment in—						
Improvement in own home	-------	3	-------	-------	1.32	-------
Other real estate including real-estate mortgages	1	1	-------	.44	.98	-------
Stocks and bonds	-------	1	-------	-------	.33	-------
Other property	-------	1	-------	-------	.02	-------
Insurance policies and annuities:						
Premium payments, life insurance	92	84	49	46.52	27.92	26.89
Premium payments, annuities	9	8	3	2.48	2.41	1.73
Increase in loans to others	-------	3	-------	-------	.48	-------
Decrease in family liabilities:						
Mortgages on own home	7	9	5	17.68	14.78	3.32
Other mortgages	-------	1	2	-------	1.07	1.80
Debts payable to insurance companies	-------	-------	1	-------	-------	.64
Debts payable to small loan companies	1	3	4	.44	.34	1.27
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan—						
Automobiles	2	2	1	1.15	1.64	.07
Other goods	25	32	8	11.14	13.37	6.80
Debts payable to individuals	1	4	-------	.13	.84	-------
Other debts	3	7	2	3.44	2.99	.92

[5] For data on assets and liabilities of white families in these cities see Monthly Labor Review, May 1936 (p. 1464).

Table 7.—Negro Families in 3 Southern Cities Reporting Receipt of Funds Other Than Current Income in the Year 1933–34

Item	Number of families reporting			Average amount reported per family		
	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans	Richmond	Birmingham	New Orleans
Decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities	37	35	21	$41.74	$30.40	$11.82
Decrease in family assets:						
Reduction in cash—						
On hand	3	2	1	5.58	1.81	.79
In checking account	1			.76		
In savings account	7	4	5	6.41	3.09	1.37
Sale of—						
Real estate, including real-estate mortgages	1			7.56		
Goods and chattels		6			2.10	
Insurance policies and annuities:						
Surrender of insurance policy		1	1		.69	.33
Settlement of life-insurance and/or endowment policy	4	1		7.65	.53	
Reduction in outstanding loans to others		2			.50	
Increase in family liabilities:						
Mortgage on own home	2	2		2.17	5.87	
Other mortgages			1			.79
Debts payable to banks	2			3.03		
Debts payable to insurance companies	6	2		.26	.16	
Debts payable to small loan companies	5	1	4	3.81	.48	3.11
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan—						
Automobiles		4			4.67	
Other goods	40	48	19	24.54	15.82	10.56
Debts payable to individuals	7	4	2	1.87	2.16	1.69
Other debts	44	34	7	21.81	15.35	2.08
Funds received by inheritance	1			.32		

RECENT PUBLICATIONS OF LABOR INTEREST

March 1937

Apprenticeship

Apprentice training. Pittsburgh, Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation, Industrial Relations Department, 1936. 38 pp., maps, illus.

Sets forth the qualifications required of an apprentice, and the terms of apprenticeship in the plants of the Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation. General instructions for apprentices and an outline of the work covered by the different trades are also given.

Civilian Conservation Corps

Annual report of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work, fiscal year ending June 30, 1936. Washington, 1936. 71 pp., folders.

An article on the operations of the Civilian Conservation Corps in 1936, based on this report, is published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Clerical Work

The office worker—labor's side of the ledger. By Orlie Pell. New York, League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th Street, 1936. 22 pp.; bibliography. (New Frontiers, Vol. 4, No. 6, October 1936.)

Discusses salaries, job security, and mechanization in office work, and the relation of office employees to the labor movement.

Coal Industry

Bituminous coal tables, 1935–36. By F. G. Tryon and others. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. Various paging, mimeographed.

Data on employment and productivity in bituminous-coal mining, taken from this compilation, are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Consumer Problems

Democracy's third estate: The consumer. By Robert S. Lynd. New York, Academy of Political Science, 1936. (Reprint from Political Science Quarterly, December 1936, pp. 481–515.)

A short analysis of the current beliefs regarding the consumer and of "their congruity with the rest of our current culture."

Report of the [Massachusetts] Committee on Consumer Credit. [Boston?], 1936. 86 pp.

Gives the results of the committee's study of the practices found in the installment-sales businesses, and prices and costs to the consumer. As the terms of reference restricted the recommendations of the committee to those on finance companies financing retail sales, the committee urged a further study to cover other phases of consumer credit. It submitted a proposed act intended to curb the harmful activities of the finance companies.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperation throughout the world in 1935. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 499, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Dividend on cooperative purchases: A study of dividend on purchases as an element in cooperative trading, with special reference to the British consumers' cooperative movement. By J. A. Hough. Manchester, England, Cooperative Union, Ltd., 1936. 187 pp., map, chart.

People's year book, 1937. Manchester, England, Cooperative Wholesale Society, [1937?]. 351 pp., illus.

Contains detailed data regarding the English and Scottish cooperative movements, summary information regarding cooperation in other countries, and articles on various labor and economic subjects.

Kooperativ verksamhet i Sverige år 1934. Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1936. 57 pp.

Covers consumers' cooperatives of various types, workers' productives, and the Central Cooperative Union (Kooperativa Förbundet). There is a French translation of the table of contents and a résumé in French.

Electric power on the farm: The story of electricity, its usefulness on farms, and the movement to electrify rural America. Washington, Rural Electrification Administration, 1936. 170 pp., charts, illus.

One chapter is devoted to cooperative distribution of electricity.

The crisis in Llano Colony, 1935–1936. By Sid Young. Published by the author, 814 West 96th Street, Los Angeles, 1936. 89 pp.

An account of the upheaval which took place within the Llano Cooperative Colony, at Newllano, La., during the two years 1935 and 1936. The author was a resident and a long-time member of the colony.

Cost of Living

Changes in cost of living, December 15, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 33 pp. (Serial No. R. 510.)

Money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in New York City. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 502, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

State sales taxes and the cost of food. By H. E. Riley. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 503, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Scale of living of the working class in São Paulo, Brazil. By Horace B. Davis and Marian Rubins Davis. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 504, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Economic and Social Problems

The recovery problem in the United States. Washington, Brookings Institution, Institute of Economics, 1936. 709 pp., charts. (Publication No. 72.)

This is a comprehensive summary of world conditions from 1929 to 1936 and a detailed analysis of American economic changes during the same period. The parts relating specifically to labor include chapters on employment and unemployment, production and productivity, reemployment possibilities, wage readjustments, and wage and price policies. The authors reaffirm views expressed in earlier Brookings Institution studies. They oppose a further reduction of hours, favor price reductions rather than wage advances, and recommend the removal of output restrictions and price controls as a means of promoting an expansion of production.

The social consequences of the economic depression. By Wladimir Woytinsky. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1936. 364 pp., charts. (Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 21.)

A study of national income during the world depression in Great Britain, Germany, France, United States, Japan, and Bulgaria, and of changes in the status of wage earners, farmers, the middle classes, persons living on their savings, and capitalists. The author emphasizes the international character of many economic problems and the importance of a comprehensive view in contrast with the policy of dealing with isolated symptoms of depression. In this connection, he cites, for example, the effects of a lack of balance between agricultural and industrial prices in transferring national wealth from agricultural to industrial countries through an excess of low-priced agricultural imports over relatively high-priced industrial exports. The author points out, however, that the accompanying decline of industrial production in the countries dependent on exports to the agricultural countries aggravated the unemployment problem.

Abolish slumps—a diagnosis of the trade cycle. By A. W. Knight. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1936. 142 pp., charts.

The writer emphasizes the active role of income and its distribution in maintaining production and employment and holds that saving, instead of increasing capital and productive facilities, may, under conditions frequently prevailing, result in the destruction of wealth by undermining demand and volume of consumption, which are described as the necessary complements of supply and volume of production.

Brotherhood economics. By Toyohiko Kagawa. New York, Harper & Bros., 1936. 207 pp. (Publication on the Rauschenbusch Lectureship Foundation.)

Describes the author's ideas for remedying the evils of the world through the principles of Christianity and discusses the part that "Christian cooperatives" can play in this reform.

Recommendations and representation of the Council for Industrial Progress. Washington, Office of U. S. Coordinator for Industrial Cooperation, 1937. 111 pp.

Presents reports of the several committees of the Council for Industrial Progress, resolutions adopted at the conference on December 11, 1936, and a list of management and labor representatives on the council.

The relationship between the extent of education and the standard of living of the people of South Dakota. A thesis presented for the degree of Master of Arts at the Ohio State University by Terence Craig Donahue. Columbus, [privately published?], 1936. 93 pp., maps; mimeographed.

An attempt to ascertain to what extent, if any, the educational level of the people of South Dakota is related to their standard of living. One of the conclusions reached is that the standard of living in a given county may be predicted with a considerable degree of accuracy from the proportion of college graduates in that county.

Education and Training

Interpretive science and related information in vocational agriculture: Effective utilization of scientific principles and related information in organized agricultural instruction. [By W. A. Ross.] Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1936. 27 pp., illus. (Vocational Education Bulletin No. 191, Agricultural Series No. 50.)

Young men in farming: A study of young men to determine the qualifications, opportunities, and needs for training in farming, together with derived guidance, placement, and training objectives. [By Edwin Ray Hoskins.] Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1936. 117 pp. (Vocational Education Bulletin No. 188, Agricultural Series No. 49.)

Aviation in the public schools. By Robert W. Hambrook. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1936. 78 pp., illus. (Vocational Education Bulletin No. 185, Trade and Industrial Series No. 53.)

Annual report of Illinois Board for Vocational Education, July 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936. Springfield, 1936. 54 pp., maps. (Bulletin No. 67.)

During the year reviewed, 48 schools in 39 cities of Illinois included some type of trade or industrial education. An increase in the number of enrolled students, new courses in cities already having vocational education, and the establishment of courses in 4 additional cities are reported. A marked increase in apprenticeship training occurred in the more important industrial centers.

Employment and Unemployment

Unemployment in the engineering profession. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 23 pp. (Serial No. R. 497, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Employment in hotels and restaurants. By Harriet A. Byrne. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1936. 105 pp. (Bulletin No. 123.)

Teachers stand in line: Analysis and forecast of teacher unemployment in the New York City school system. Report of the unemployment committee of the New York Teachers Guild. New York, New York Teachers Guild, 104 Fifth Avenue, 1936. 30 pp., charts.

Report of committee on employment, Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Washington, 1936. 18 pp.

A discussion of employment and unemployment problems, including the Chamber's estimates of the number of unemployed in the United States in March 1933, and in June and September 1936.

Annual review of the employment situation in Canada during 1936. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 40 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Shows moderate improvement in industrial employment during the calendar year covered—a continuation of the favorable trend which, except for a few intervals, has been evidenced in the last 4 years.

Achter Bericht der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung für die Zeit vom 1. April 1935 bis zum 31. Marz. 1936. Berlin, 1936. 63 pp., charts. (Sonderdruck aus dem Reichsarbeitsblatt 1936 Nr. 34.)

Annual report of the State Employment Service and Unemployment Insurance Office in Germany for the fiscal year of 1935–36, including data on unemployment, measures to increase employment opportunities, and unemployment benefit and relief payments.

Employment Offices

Directory of State employment offices. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, October 1936. 65 pp., mimeographed.

Selected list of references on the subject of public employment offices. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, September 1, 1936. Folder.

Relief and reemployment: A report of a brief study of the placement of employables from relief to work projects and private jobs in New York City. By H. L. Lurie. New York, State Department of Labor, Advisory Council to the Employment Service, 1936. 59 pp., mimeographed.

A review of the inter-relationship and work of the Employment Service of New York State, the National Reemployment Service, the Emergency Relief Bureau, and the Works Progress Administration, in New York City.

Farm Labor and Farm Tenancy

Contemporary background of California farm labor. By Paul S. Taylor and Tom Vasey. (Reprinted from Rural Sociology, Baton Rouge, La., December 1936, pp. 401–419; charts.)

Landlord and tenant on the cotton plantation. By T. J. Woofter, Jr., and associates. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1936. 288 pp., maps, charts. (Research Monograph V.)

This study is essentially a description of one phase of the perplexing problem of farm tenancy in the United States, landlord-tenant relations in the Eastern Cotton Belt. The analysis is based on information obtained from 646 medium-sized and large cotton plantations in the Southeast. Among the specific problems considered are the trends of landownership, plantation organization and management, land utilization and the one-crop system, credit and indebtedness, income, standards of living, and the mobility of the plantation workers. A realistic approach to the problem of rehabilitation and relief is suggested.

The nation-wide problem of farm tenancy. (In The Congressional Digest, Washington, D. C., February 1937, pp. 37–64.)

Presents factual material on farm tenancy, proposed measures for dealing with the problem, pro and con discussions by prominent persons on the possible remedial value of Government aid for small farm purchasers, and a brief selected bibliography.

Social security for southern farmers. By H. C. Nixon. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1936. 8 pp. (Southern Policy Papers No. 2.)

A general discussion of some measures which should be taken into consideration in any plan for social and economic rehabilitation of farming in the South.

Housing

European housing policy and practice. By Ernest M. Fisher and Richard U. Ratcliff. Washington, Federal Housing Administration, 1936. 101 pp., illus.

The conclusions reached after this survey of housing in 10 countries are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

How the other half is housed: A pictorial record of sub-minimum farm housing in the South. By Rupert B. Vance. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1936. 16 pp. (Southern Policy Papers No. 4.)

Annual review of building permits issued by 58 cities in Canada, 1936 (with comparative data for the years 1920–1935). Ottawa, Department of Trade and Commerce, Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 17 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Immigration

The foreign born in the United States. By Dwight C. Morgan. New York, American Committee for the Protection of Foreign Born, 100 Fifth Avenue, 1936. 82 pp.

Among the subjects taken up in this pamphlet are immigration; exclusion of Chinese, Japanese, and other aliens; citizenship bars; and deportation.

World statistics of aliens—a comparative study of census returns, 1910–1920–1930. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1936. 251 pp. (Studies and Reports, Series O, No. 6.)

In part I the results of the enumeration and classification of aliens included in the censuses of different countries are analyzed and deductions made. In part II eight international tables are published, the statistics for 1930 relating, in some cases, to as many as 141 territories.

Income

National income and outlay. By Colin Clark. London, Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1937. 304 pp., charts.

This book takes the place of National Income, 1924–1931, by the same author, published in 1932. In a chapter on distribution of the product of industry, the author estimates that the proportion of home-produced income in Great Britain (excluding government income and income from overseas), distributed in the form of wages, was 39.5 percent in 1911, 42.1 in 1924, and 40.5 in 1935. In a chapter on redistribution of income through taxation, it is estimated that "the net effect of taxation and local rates in 1935 can be described as a redistribution of £91 millions from the rich to the poor in the form of services, other than those provided for from the proceeds of working-class taxation." There is a chapter on historical statistics of national income.

Industrial Accidents and Health

Accidents and their prevention. By H. M. Vernon, M. D. New York, Macmillan Co, 1936. 336 pp., charts, illus.

A general study of accidents in factories, mines, and the home, on railways, and on public roads; the effectiveness of existing preventive measures; and suggested methods for further reduction of accident hazards. The importance of the human factor is discussed, and special attention is devoted to the mounting menace of automobile accidents.

[*Annual report of U. S. Bureau of Mines for fiscal year 1935–36.*] Washington, 1936. 39 pp. (Reprinted from Annual Report of Secretary of the Interior.)

Outlines briefly the activities of the Bureau of Mines in health, safety, and other fields.

The mine foreman's examination guide, 1937. Charleston, W. Va., Department of Mines, 1937. 134 pp.

The material is presented under the following heads: Mining law (West Virginia); first aid; ventilation; instruments and apparatus; gases; fire and explosions; electricity; explosives; and general mining practice.

Occupational-disease legislation in the United States, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 58 pp. (Bulletin No. 625.)

Third report of departmental committee appointed [by Secretary of State for the Home Department, Great Britain] to inquire and report as to certain proposed extensions of the schedule of industrial diseases to which section 43 of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925, applies. London, Home Office, 1936. 16 pp.

A discussion of the occurrence and symptoms of Weil's disease and the conditions under which the committee recommended compensation to workers who have contracted the disease.

Industrial Relations

Decisions and orders of the National Labor Relations Board, Volume I, December 7, 1935–July 1, 1936. Washington, 1936. 1095 pp.

First report of the United States Maritime Commission, October 26 to December 31, 1936. Washington, 1937. 12 pp.

The United States Maritime Commission, created by the Merchant Marine Act of 1936, is required under the terms of that act to report its activities to Congress at the beginning of each regular session. As the commission was organized on October 26, this report covers only three months and deals chiefly with the erection of its administrative machinery and with its program and plans for future activity. One function of the commission is "to determine minimum wages, manning scales, and reasonable working conditions aboard ships operating under Government subsidy." Acting under that authorization it offered its services in the adjustment of the shipping dispute which was in progress on the Pacific Coast when the commission was organized. Although its proposal was not accepted, the commission instituted official investigations along the lines proposed, first on the Pacific Coast and then on the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, which are still in progress.

Sixth report of proceedings of Canadian Railway Board of Adjustment No. 1, covering period October 1, 1933, to September 30, 1936. Montreal, Quebec, [1936?]. 11 pp. (Also issued as Bulletin No. 13, Industrial Relations Series, of Department of Labor of Canada, Ottawa, 1937.)

Application des conventions collectives [France]; consequences de leur violation. Paris, Union des Syndicats patronaux des Industries textiles de France, 10, Rue d'Anjou, 1936. 51 pp.

A legal and practical study of the laws in France governing collective agreements, with excerpts from the legislation.

Labor organizations in Great Britain—legislative restrictions. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1937. 12 pp.

Discussion of the principal provisions of the British Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act of 1927, dealing chiefly with picketing, definitions of legal and illegal strikes, and the regulation of registered unions. Pertinent sections of this act are quoted, and reference is also made to political activities as defined in the Act of 1913 and the limitation on expenditures for political purposes imposed by the act of 1927.

International Labor Conference

International Labor Conference, twentieth session, 1936: Record of proceedings. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1936. xxxi, 797 pp.

Contains a complete transcript, in English and French, of the proceedings of the conference, and the draft conventions and recommendations adopted.

Iron and Steel Industry

Economics of the iron and steel industry. By Carroll R. Daugherty, Melvin G. de Chazeau, and Samuel S. Stratton. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1937. 1188 pp., charts; 2 vols. (University of Pittsburgh, Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 6.)

The main outlines of the study include sections on the background of the industry before the N. R. A.; production and pricing problems under the code; and labor conditions and labor relations under the code. It is estimated that the code's wage provisions had the effect directly and indirectly of raising the wage rates of common labor about 40 percent, of higher-paid labor about 29 percent, and of salaried workers about 20 percent. The authors state that compliance with wage provisions was relatively thorough and complete. The provisions relating to hours were complied with less adequately but the record of compliance is described as creditable. In respect to labor relations and the development of industrial democracy and peace in the industry, the authors hold that the code's provisions relating to collective bargaining, combined with the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act, resulted in a start toward replacing "fundamental autocracy" with "real democracy."

Labor Legislation

State labor laws for women—hours, home work, prohibited or regulated occupations, seats, minimum wage. By Florence P. Smith. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 93 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 144—revision of Bulletin No. 98.)

Minimum Wage

Selected articles on minimum wages and maximum hours. Compiled and edited by Egbert Ray Nichols and Joseph H. Baccus. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1936. 461 pp. (The Handbook Series IV, Vol. 6.)

A compilation, for debate and reference purposes, of court decisions, speeches in Congress, official publications, and magazine and newspaper articles and editorials, dealing with legal minimum wages and maximum hours. The material is arranged in two parts, and is so presented as to furnish debate material on both sides of the controversial question of legal regulation of working conditions. Part I deals with the subjects from the viewpoint of political science, while part II takes the economic approach. Separate bibliographies are presented for minimum wages and maximum hours, and relevant court decisions are cited.

Minimum-salary laws for teachers. Washington, National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, January 1937. 38 pp.

Presents the different types of existing minimum-salary laws for teachers in 20 States and gives some information on their operation. These laws are represented as constitutional and equitable, and as having made for better teaching in numerous school systems.

National Recovery Administration

The National Recovery Administration. Message from the President of the United States transmitting a report on the operation of the National Recovery Administration, which has been prepared by those members of the Committee of Industrial Analysis who have no official relationship to the Government. Washington, 1937. xii, 193 pp. (House Document No. 158, 75th Cong., 1st sess.)

Conclusions relating to labor are reviewed in this issue.

Negro in Industry

National conference on problems of the Negro and Negro youth. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 515, reprint from February 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

A selected list of books by and about the Negro. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1936. 9 pp.

The section devoted to economic and social problems includes references to material on Negro workers.

Nutrition

The problem of nutrition. Geneva, League of Nations, 1936. In 4 parts.

The 4 parts of this report cover, respectively: I, Interim report of the mixed committee on the problem of nutrition; II, Report on the physiological bases of nutrition; III, Nutrition in various countries; IV, Statistics of food production, consumption, and prices.

Occupations

Books about jobs—a bibliography of occupational literature. By Willard E. Parker. Cnicago, American Library Association (for National Occupational Conference, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York City), 1936. 402 pp. (Preliminary edition.)

About 8,000 references are listed, under 28 general headings and some 600 job classifications.

Index to vocations. Compiled by Willodeen Price and Zelma E. Ticen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1936. 106 pp.

Sources of information are given for 1,800 vocations.

What about jobs? By Theodore Barrett. Los Angeles, City School District, Division of Instruction and Curriculum, 1936. 257 pp. (School Publication No. 285.)

Prepared for the use of pupils, teachers, and counselors in senior high schools, with a view to aiding in the problem of vocational choices and adjustments. Discusses the job situation today; preparing for, getting, and succeeding in a job; the traits that make a successful personality; and various phases of employer-employee relations.

Usual occupations of workers eligible for Works Program employment in the United States, January 15, 1936. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1937. 110 pp.

Old-Age Pensions

Old age aid legislation and costs. A study of facts prepared by a special study committee in collaboration with the California State Chamber of Commerce. [San Francisco, California State Chamber of Commerce?], 1937. 11 pp., charts, mimeographed.

On the basis of data available from various sources, endeavors to arrive at estimates of the possible costs in California involved in legislation relative to care of the aged, under the Federal Social Security Act and under suggested liberalized provisions of the law.

The Townsend Plan: National recovery program. Washington, D. C., Old Age Revolving Pensions, Ltd., 1936. 95 pp., diagrams, illus. 2d ed.

An explanation of the plan.

Personnel Management

The aim and purpose of a labor department [in an industrial plant]. By J. H. Fullwood. London, Institute of Labor Management, 52 Grosvenor Gardens, S. W. 1, 1936. 10 pp. (Labor Management Pamphlet No. 1.)

Discusses the place and value of a personnel department in an establishment employing a considerable number of workers.

Manual for leaders of foremanship conferences together with discussion outlines. By R. O. Beckman. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1937. 128 pp.

Seniority in promotion and discharge—a list of references. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor Library, March 4, 1937. 4 pp., mimeographed.

Salaries, wages and labor relations. By J. O. Hopwood. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1937. 124 pp., charts.

A study of job analysis and classification, and pay roll administration, from the point of view of corporation management.

Prices

Prices in Canada and other countries, 1936. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1937. 23 pp., chart.

An annual report of Shanghai commodity prices, 1935. Shanghai, National Tariff Commission, [1936?]. 132 pp., charts. (In Chinese and English.)

In addition to detailed wholesale-price statistics for Shanghai, indexes of wholesale prices are given for Canton, Changsha, Hankow, Nanking, Tientsin, and Tsingtao, and cost-of-living index numbers for Tientsin and Peiping.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Report of the President of the United States to the Congress, of the operations under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 and the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936, as of December 31, 1936. Washington, 1937. 685 pp.

Almost entirely statistical, showing disbursements by type of project, by organization, by State, etc.

Experience of the Emergency Relief Commission with relief administration in Connecticut. Hartford, Connecticut Emergency Relief Commission, 1937. 173 pp., charts, illus.

Reviews experience with unemployment relief, work-relief projects, and work of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

A prognosis of the New Britain case load: An analysis of 527 outdoor relief cases active in February and March 1936. By George A. Fogg. Hartford, Connecticut Emergency Relief Commission, 1936. Various paging; mimeographed.

The primary purpose of the study was "the appraisal of a group of relief cases with respect to their ability to become self-supporting in the near future." The analysis was concerned mainly with the identification and measurement of conditions affecting employment and employability.

Aid to the needy blind [in the District of Columbia], March 1 to September 30, 1936. Washington, District of Columbia Board of Public Welfare, Public Assistance Division, 1936. 9 pp., chart; mimeographed.

Biennial report of the Illinois Emergency Relief Commission, covering the period July 1, 1934, through June 30, 1936. Chicago, [1936?]. 229 pp., maps, charts.

Unemployment relief in Illinois, occupational characteristics of persons on relief, and old-age assistance and relief, are among the subjects reported upon.

Social welfare service in Kansas, 1936. Topeka, Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, 1937. 123 pp., charts, illus. (KERC Bulletin No. 380.)

Includes information on the Civilian Conservation Corps, unemployment relief, poor farms, Negro relief, and steps taken to assist farmers under Federal rural-rehabilitation legislation.

Nebraska survey of social resources—summary. Lincoln, State Child Welfare Bureau, 1936. 99 pp., mimeographed.

Contains data on Nebraska social-security legislation, State provision for old-age assistance, blind assistance, and care of dependent children, developed from a survey of State institutions and of local public and private social agencies. Intended to serve as a basis for "more intelligent planning for public welfare."

Causes and consequences: A study of rural relief in relation to county backgrounds. By Paul H. Landis and Rachmiel Forschmiedt. Pullman, Wash., Washington State College, Rural Sociology Research Laboratory, 1936. 17 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Rural Relief Series, No. 1.)

A study of relief in five counties of Washington, made by Washington State College in cooperation with the Federal Works Progress Administration. The purpose of the study was to discover some of the weaknesses of the regions covered and their resources, with a view to the working out of means of remedying the conditions making relief necessary.

Inter-agency service of the Family Welfare Association of America: A selected list of family welfare agencies which have agreed to give service to other agencies listed. New York, Family Welfare Association of America, 130 E. 22d Street, 1937. 112 pp. (28th ed.)

The Federal transient program for boys in Southern California. By George E. Outland. (Reprinted from Social Forces, Chapel Hill, N. C., March 1936, pp. 427–432.)

Describes the organization and work of the unified Social Welfare Department for Boys in Southern California.

Theses and studies on the problem of transiency and homelessness. New York, Committee on Care of Transient and Homeless, 1270 Sixth Avenue, November 19, 1936. 4 pp., mimeographed.

The Relief Act, 1935: Report of Dominion Commissioner of Unemployment Relief, March 31, 1936. Ottawa, Department of Labor of Canada, 1936. 36 pp., chart.

In addition to information relative to the administration of the Relief Act, 1935, the report contains statements on expenditures under the relief acts of 1930 to 1934.

Annual report of the London County Council, 1935: Vol. I, part II, Public assistance. London, 1937. 89 pp., charts.

Activities for the year ending March 31, 1936, in administration of the various forms of public assistance in the county of London. Among the recommendations of the London County Council is one requesting removal of the disqualification of inmates of poor-law institutions for the receipt of old-age pensions. The council makes the point that institutions afford the best means of caring for many infirm and ill persons in receipt of pensions, and that by continuing to receive their pensions such persons could pay for their own maintenance in the institutions and have a small "comfort allowance" in addition.

Social Security (General)

Regulations 91, relating to the employees' tax and the employers' tax, under Title VIII of the Social Security Act. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Internal Revenue, 1936. 54 pp.

A preliminary report of the social security survey, a project sponsored by the Georgia State Department of Public Welfare in cooperation with the Works Progress Administration. [Atlanta?], 1936. 22 pp.

Contains estimates of the probable cost of care of the aged and of dependent children in Georgia, based upon data obtained from relief authorities, almshouses, etc.; and an examination of the various State agencies from the point of view of determining how they would fit into the administration of a social security program.

Tennessee Valley Authority

Annual report of the Tennessee Valley Authority, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1936. Washington, 1936. 377 pp., map, illus.

Includes data on labor policies, wages paid to employees of the Authority, training of employees, etc.

The TVA and economic security in the South. By T. Levron Howard. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1936. 11 pp. (Southern Policy Papers, No. 7.)

Discusses the functions of the Tennessee Valley Authority which should improve the general well-being of people in the South.

Unemployment Insurance

Characteristics of the labor market in Alabama related to the administration of unemployment compensation. By Burton R. Morley. Tuscaloosa, University of Alabama, Bureau of Business Research, 1937. 115 pp. (Printed Series No. 1.)

The four parts of this study deal respectively with the industrial and occupational character of the State; industrial and occupational tendencies; seasonality, migration, and labor turn-over; and the administration of unemployment compensation.

Report of Governor's [Connecticut] Commission on Unemployment Compensation. Hartford, 1936. 126 pp.

The text of the Connecticut bill to provide unemployment compensation is given, with running comment on its terms, discussions of the merits of different plans for such compensation, and pertinent data on employment, pay rolls, earnings of workers, etc.

Unemployment-assistance guide [Great Britain], 1936–37 edition. By G. Grant McKenzie. London, Labor Publications Department, Smith Square, S. W. 1, 1936. 55 pp.

A guide to operations under the 1936 regulations for unemployment assistance in Great Britain.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Hours and earnings before and after the N. R. A. By Witt Bowden. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 24 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 496, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Union scales of wages and hours in the building trades, May 15, 1936. By Florence Peterson and C. F. Rauth. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 46 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 626.)

Entrance rates and full-time hours of common laborers employed by cities, September 1935. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 31 pp. (Bulletin No. 627.)

Employment in hotels and restaurants. By Harriet A. Byrne. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1936. 105 pp. (Bulletin No. 123.)

A survey, made in 1934, of wages, hours, and working conditions in hotels and restaurants in 20 States. In addition to wage rates, data on earnings and the amount of gratuities are given, and practices characteristic of the employment, such as the required purchasing and laundering of uniforms, are discussed. The survey was made by the Women's Bureau at the request of the Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and was undertaken primarily to develop factual data for use in rehearings on the codes for the hotel and restaurant industries.

Wage and hour legislation for the South. By H. M. Douty. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1937. 26 pp.; brief bibliography.

Attempts to answer the question as to what can be done to attain fair minimum-labor standards in southern industry.

Canadian-American industry—a study in international investment. By Herbert Marshall, Frank A. Southard, Jr., and Kenneth W. Taylor. New Haven, Yale University Press (for the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Economics and History), 1936. 360 pp., charts.

Although this volume is not concerned primarily with questions directly affecting labor, there are discussions of comparative wage rates and labor costs in Canada and the United States, of wages and labor policies in branch establishments, and of the extent of labor displacement in the United States resulting from the establishment of branch plants and from the investment of American capital in Canada.

Wages and hours of labor in Canada, 1929, 1935, and 1936. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1937. 152 pp. (Wages and Hours of Labor Report No. 20; supplement to January 1937 Labor Gazette.)

Data from this report are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Lönestatistisk årsbok for Sverige, 1935. Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1936. 94 pp., map, charts.

Annual general report on wages in Sweden giving statistics for 1935 and earlier years. Printed in Swedish with table of contents and résumé in French.

Women in Industry

Employment of women in Delaware. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1936. 13 pp., mimeographed.

One of the series of studies of working conditions of women, by States, published by the Women's Bureau. This study of employment of women in Delaware covered 90 establishments in 18 cities and towns. Data on wages and hours of labor in May 1936 are given for the principal woman-employing industries of the State, of which the textile industry and the manufacture of men's cotton garments are the most important; for laundries; and for department and limited-price retail stores.

Workmen's Compensation

Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and Canada, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 500, reprint from January 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

General Reports

Report of the Government of the District of Columbia for the year ended June 30, 1936. Washington, District of Columbia Board of Commissioners, 1936. 203 pp.

Presents reports from the various departments of the District Government, including the Department of Public Welfare, and data on compensation paid to injured District employees.

Statistical summary of changes in employment, pay rolls, man-hours, cost of living, and building construction [in Illinois] during the year 1936 [with comparative data for earlier years]. By Peter T. Swanish. Chicago, Illinois Department of Labor, Division of Statistics and Research, [1937?]. 56 pp., charts.

Biennial report of the Commissioner of Labor of Nevada, for the period July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1936, inclusive. Carson City, 1936. 30 pp.

Gives data on the collection of wage claims, wage scales in mining camps, prison labor, and activities of employment offices, together with information on existing State labor laws and recommendations by the commissioner for new legislation.

Twenty-first biennial report of the New Hampshire Bureau of Labor, for the fiscal period ending June 30, 1936. Concord, 1936. 114 pp.

Industrial accidents, factory inspection, unemployment compensation, and other matters dealt with by the Bureau of Labor are reported upon, and directories of manufacturers and labor organizations in the State are provided.

Census of employable workers in urban and rural non-farm areas of Pennsylvania, 1934. Harrisburg, State Emergency Relief Administration, 1936. 69 pp.

Employment status, duration of unemployment, occupational shift (ages and occupations), and wages are the major subjects under which the statistics are presented.

First annual report of the Department of Labor of South Carolina, for the period June 1, 1936, to January 1, 1937. Columbia, 1937. 67 pp.

Contains statistics of employment, wages, and number of days of plant operation, for all industries, by counties; a directory of the principal industries of the State and special directories of the textile industry and cotton-seed-oil mills; and information on inspections made of various classes of industries.

Statistisch jaarboek der gemeente Amsterdam, 1934–1935—tweede deel. Amsterdam, Bureau van Statistiek, 1937. 186 pp. (In Dutch and French.)

The second part of a general statistical year book for the city of Amsterdam. The data cover employment and unemployment, employment-service activities, wage rates on public works, strikes and lock-outs, industrial accidents, social insurance, prices, cost of living, etc., in 1935 and earlier years.

Wirtschaftsstatistisches Jahrbuch 1936. Vienna, Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte, 1936. 592 pp.

Textual and statistical presentation of data on wages, hours of labor, unemployment, prices, cost of living, etc., in Austria.

Canada 1937: The official handbook of present conditions and recent progress. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 191 pp., charts, illus.

In the section devoted to labor, the Dominion and Provincial labor offices are described and data are given on occupations, the labor movement, employment, old-age pensions, and unemployment-relief measures. Other subjects of labor interest dealt with in the volume are production, national income, and wholesale and retail prices.

Liikealan toimihenkilöiden olot vuonna 1935. Helsinki, Socialiministeriö, 1936. 41 pp.

Report on labor conditions of employees of commercial establishments in Finland in 1935, including statistics of employment by occupation, salary, education, age, sex, and family status. In Finnish and Swedish with tables also in French and a French résumé.

Statistical abstract for the United Kingdom for each of the 15 years 1913 and 1922 to 1935. London, Board of Trade, 1937. 426 pp. (Cmd. 5353.)

Subjects of general labor interest for which statistical data are given include number engaged in industry; number of workers insured under health- and unemployment-insurance systems, and old-age benefits; trade-union membership, income and expenditure; strikes and lock-outs; wages and cost of living; industrial accidents and workmen's compensation; and housing.

Statistiek van het gemeentepersoneel [der Gemeente 's-Gravenhage], 1935. The Hague, Statistisch Bureau, 1936. 61 pp., charts.

Report on municipal employment in The Hague in 1935, including information on wages, family allowances, incidence of specified diseases among the workers, and absences on account of illness. French translations of the table of contents and some of the table heads are supplied.

Annual report on the social and economic progress of the people of Hong Kong, 1935. London, [Colonial Office], 1936. 53 pp., map. (Colonial Reports, Annual, No. 1775.)

Average rates of wages paid and the number of working hours are shown for specified occupations and industries, and there is a short discussion of housing.

Norges jernbaner, 1935–36. Oslo, Hovedstyret for Statsbanene, 1937. 104 pp.

Annual statistical report for the railways in Norway during the fiscal year 1935–36, including data on personnel, industrial accidents and diseases, and pension and relief funds. Printed in Norwegian with French translations of the table of contents and some table heads.

Statistisk-økonomisk oversikt over året 1936. Oslo, Norway, Statistiske Centralbyrå, 1937. 72 pp., charts.

Production, changes in prices and cost of living, and unemployment are among the topics covered in this review of the economic situation in Norway in 1936. French translations of the preface and table of contents are provided.

Statistical register [South Australia], 1934–35. Adelaide, Statistical Office, 1936. Various paging.

The section on factories contains statistics of employment, wages, and apprenticeship.

Socialist upbuilding of the U. S. S. R. Moscow, Gosplan, 1936. 719 pp. (In Russian.)

Statistical year book for the Soviet Republic, giving data on employment, wages, working hours, social insurance, education and training of workers, labor unions, apprenticeship, extent of piece work, racial composition of labor forces, and other information of interest in connection with labor.

Statistisk årsbok för Stockholms stad, 1936. Stockholm, Statistiska Kontor, 1936. 260 pp.

The subjects covered in this statistical year book for the city of Stockholm, Sweden, include public works, wages, unemployment, activities of the city unemployment commission, prices and cost of living, housing, cooperative societies, and public assistance. Some of the statistics in the volume, as those on cost of living and unemployment, are brought down to 1936, but the greater part are for 1935 and earlier years. French translations are given for the table of contents, table heads, and some footnotes.

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